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Mr Balacrushna Venayek Wassoodew
by his family.
to
Bombay Branch Royal Asiatic Society

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HISTORY

OF THE

BRITISH COLONIES.

VOLUME V.

POSSESSIONS IN EUROPE.

HISTORY

OF THE

BRITISH COLONIES.

BY

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IN FIVE VOLUMES.

VOLUME V.

POSSESSIONS IN EUROPE.

'FAR as the breeze can bear—the billows foam—
SURVEY OUR EMPIRE!'

LONDON:
JAMES COCHRANE AND CO.
11, WATERLOO PLACE, PALL MALL.
MDCCCXXXV.

17342

10 JUL 1964

NC

LONDON: W. NICOL, 51, PALL MALL.

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HISTORY OF THE BRITISH COLONIES.

(VOL. V.—POSSESSIONS IN EUROPE.)*

Possessions.	Date of Acquisition.	Ceded, Conquered, or Colonized.	Insulas or Continental.	Locality.† Lat.	Locality.† Long.	Area in Square Miles.	Population, Civil.	Maritime Commerce. Imports in Value.	Maritime Commerce. Exports in Value.	Shipping. Total Inwards.	Shipping. From Great Britain.	Finances. Colonial Revenue.	Finances. Expense to Great Britain.§	Land. Cultivated Acres.	Land. Uncultivated Acres.	Stock. Horses.	Stock. Horned Cattle.	Stock. Sheep and Goats.	Stock. Swine.	Property.‡ Annually Created.	Property.‡ Moveable and Immoveable.	Chief City or Town.	On River, Sea, or Coast.	Population.
								£.	£.	Tons.	Tons.	£.	£.			No.	No.	No.	No.	£.	£.			
Gibraltar	1704	Conq.	Cont.	36.6 N.	5.21 W.	15	15000	1000000	no returns	192000	24000	30000	150000	30	60					75000	1500000	Gibraltar.	B. of Gibraltar	15000
Malta	1800	Ceded	Insul.	36.50 N.	14.30 E.	92	105539	600000	400000	140000	17000	110000	100000	42976	45996	3700	5773	11939	3845	344472	3600000	Valetta.	Ch. of Malta.	45000
Gozo, &c.	1800	Do.	Do.	36.0 N.	14.15 E.	27	16367							9793	2339	1278	447	5766	565	81835	300000	Rabatto.	Ditto.	5000
Corfu	1814	Do.	Do.	39.30 N.	19.50 E.	227	60890							112068	33272	4101	2541	34792		721680	4500000	Corfu.	Ionian Sea.	20000
Cephalonia	1809	Do. & conq.	Do.	38.30 N.	20.30 E.	348	56826							32934	189786	3753	1416	40767		568260	2600000	Argostoli.	Ditto.	4000
Zante	1809	Do.	Do.	37.47 N.	20.54 E.	156	35623	610000	563000	299000	30000	200000	80000	45971	53869	3152	944	30126		428076	2000000	Zante.	Ditto.	6000
Santa Maura	1810	Do.	Do.	38.40 N.	20.46 E.	180	17840							17539	97661	2223	1786	39631		178400	1000000	Amaxichi.	Ditto.	6000
Cerigo	1810	Do.	Do.	36.6 N.	22.50 E.	116	8579							12555	41635	840	3082	20435		85790	500000	Kapsali.	Ditto.	5000
Ithaca	1810	Do.	Do.	38.25 N.	20.40 E.	44	9556							1611	3286	643	289	12859	No returns.	95650	350000	Vathi.	Ditto.	4000
Paxo, &c.	*1815*	*Ceded*	*Do.*	*39.12 N.*	*20.12 E.*	*25*	*5071*							*11406*	*5234*	*270*	*2*	*979*		*50710*	120000	Port Gai.	Ditto.	1000
Jersey	1080	Do.	Do.	49.16 N.	2.20 W.	62	40000					10000								400000	3600000	St. Heliers.	English Chan.	
Guernsey	1080	Do.	Do.	49.33 N.	2.40 W.	30	20000					8000								266000	1800000	St. Peter's Pt.	Ditto.	14000
Alderney	1080	Do.	Do.	49.41 N.	2.12 W.	9	1500	50000				500								15000	100000	St. Ann's.	Ditto.	1000
Serk, Herm, &c.	1080	Do.	Do.	49.24 N.	2.15 W.	10	600													6000	25000	Serk.	Ditto.	500
Isle of Man	1289	Do.	Do.	54.20 N.	4.40 W.	220	48000					26000								344000	2500000	Douglas. ‖	Irish Channel.	7000
Heligoland	1807	Conq.	Do.	54.11 N.	7.53 E.	2	2200													25000	160000	Heligoland.	German Ocean	2200

* Incomplete as the tables prefacing the other volumes have been, this will be perceived to be little better; the fault rests not with me, but with the imperfect nature of our public documents.

† The places being small I merely give the parallel and meridian without stating the extreme points of the islands: the reader desirous of ascertaining the exact minute can refer to the text.

‡ This of course is but a very rough estimate, founded on calculations similar to those given in the preceding volumes.

§ This is the cost of the troops so far as the charge falls on the Home Treasury.

‖ Douglas is the maritime capital, but Castletown is the seat of Government.

INTRODUCTION

TO THE

FIFTH VOLUME

OF THE

HISTORY OF THE BRITISH COLONIES.

The closing volume of the '*History of the British* Colonies*' requires some observations, which, I trust, will be received in a sincerity of spirit similar to that in which they are offered. The present work is the *first* attempt that has been made to place before the public a complete and connected view of the transmarine possessions of the Empire, and I confess that it was not without much diffidence and hesitation that I undertook a task requiring a persevering labour which few can form an idea of. I was stimulated, however, to the undertaking by several considerations, some of which it may not be improper here to mention. While a student at the close of the last war, a course of reading superinduced a train of reflections on the physical and moral greatness of nations, and the proximate and remote causes of the rise and *fall* of Empires: I sought for a parallel between England and Rome, Carthage, or Athens, but I sought in vain; nor was

* I am preparing for the press a volume on the Colonies of France, Spain, Portugal, Holland, Denmark, Sweden, Russia, Turkey, &c. which will be necessary to a due understanding of our own Colonial System of Policy. I am informed at the Colonial Office that such a work will be very desirable, as there is nothing of the kind extant.

my search for a description of the vast transmarine possessions of Britain attended with any better results.

Suffice it to say, that irresistibly urged by these powerful but secret and indescribable impulses which those who have undergone the vicissitudes of life can so well understand and appreciate, I resolved to visit the Colonies and judge for myself; my patrimony being small, I studied medicine as enabling me the better to travel,—and for upwards of ten years I returned not unto Europe. With a view to obtaining a more extended knowledge of Africa, and the Eastern Hemisphere and Southern Ocean, I joined Captain Owen's arduous expedition (as a medical officer) in his Majesty's ships *Leven* and *Barracouta* at the Cape of Good Hope, in 1823, and after two years perilous servitude, and the repeated risking of my life in the cause of humanity, (for which I received the thanks of the Commodore and my brother officers) I resumed, at the Mauritius, in 1825,* my travelling as a private individual.

The declining state of my health and private circumstances compelled my return to England, where I found the question of parliamentary reform entirely absorbing public attention, and, that apathetic as the nation had heretofore been to its colonies, domestic interests, had now absorbed every other consideration. To attempt, therefore, to awaken public attention to our maritime possessions at such a period would have been a hopeless task; I, however (after directing my mind to collateral subjects) proceeded to Windsor and laid

* I may here state, that I did not quit the post of danger where so many brave men and scientific officers perished (although suffering under the African fever), until the expedition had drawn towards a close, and my services were no longer indispensably requisite, either for the welfare of the squadron or for the honour of my country.

before the King some of my statistical charts,* and his Majesty was graciously pleased to command me to dedicate to him the History of the Colonies, many of which he had himself visited, being the first British Sovereign possessing a personal knowledge of our transmarine empire.

I had then intended to cause a large quarto work in several volumes to be published with numerous engravings, but I found the age for cheap books conveying instruction had set in, and that condensed facts were chiefly desired. To have prepared, however, a dry statistical work would have failed of accomplishing the object in view, namely, an exciting of the public mind to a due sense of the importance of the Colonies; I resolved, therefore, on assuming the present form and design; and as soon as the excitement regarding parliamentary reform had subsided, the work was placed in the printer's hands, by whom six volumes (including the second edition of the first volume) have been printed in two years, each volume requiring on an average upwards of three months for its execution. I mention these circumstances to account for what may otherwise seem procrastination: nor should I omit to state that, during the several past years I have scarcely enjoyed an entire day's rest; too often has my lamp been extinguished by the morning sun,—and for days and weeks unremitting labour has been performed without scarcely rising from my couch; let me also be permitted to remark, that I am almost a stranger in England—unknown

* One of these charts was an immense tabular view of the whole of the British Colonies, and which His Majesty was pleased to commend. It was, unfortunately, burnt in the late conflagration at the House of Commons, where it had been left after my examination (at the close of the session of 1834) on the taxation of the empire. I hope, however, to be enabled to give a somewhat similar chart with my *Colonial Policy*.

to, and unknowing any individuals,—that I have had no person to assist me in my labours, and no pecuniary aid afforded me publicly or privately towards the prosecution of a work, the bare mechanical expenses of which have been upwards of £600 per volume.* I seek not by these references to a few of the difficulties encountered to disarm criticism,—No —the Public Press has already awarded me a praise far beyond my deserts and in so doing have stimulated my oft drooping frame and languid spirit into renewed energy:—indeed I unreservedly declare, that I do not deem myself deserving of the encomiums that have been bestowed upon me; my only merit has been *industry*—a merit which so many millions of my fellow subjects possess, and which has tended to raise this country, by the Divine blessing, to its present pre-eminence: I endeavoured simply to register facts;†

* I am bound here to express my grateful feelings to the printer and the publisher for the efficient manner in which they have seconded my efforts: to Mr. Nicol's excellent typographical establishment, in Pall Mall, the public are not less indebted for an exquisite display of printing, than is the Author for the kind attention paid by Mr. Nicol to a peculiarly complex and harassing work.

† It would be absurd for me to say, that in the vast mass of figures which these volumes contain, there are no errors; but when it is remembered that the present work is the very first of the kind—that I have had no aid—and that, from the heretofore deficient state of statistical knowledge in England, scarcely two official returns are alike (the Board of Trade varying from the Colonial Office, the Custom House from the India House, and so on)—the weight of difficulties to be met will, I hope, be conceded. Frequently errors were palpable in the official documents obtained, and yet I was induced to give the table as it stood, in order to elicit further enquiry and more attentive revision in the public offices. To illustrate this by an example, I request the reader to turn to page 291: in the table of Malta shipping, he will find the colonial vessels entering inwards diminished in one year (1832) from 292 to 25. Mr. P. Smith, of the Colonial Office (a gentleman to whom I am under many obligations), endeavoured in vain to trace out an obvious error or change in the mode of keeping the returns. Had I refused to give this table, no idea could be formed of the consecu-

I sought *truth* from amidst an almost hidden and discordant mass of materials,—I was anxious to *bring into relief* Colonial statistics, a knowledge of which is essential to the welfare of the community, and I threw into the colouring of the picture as many interesting descriptive incidents as would attract various classes of society, and serve as indices on which memory might dwell.

From the warmth with which I have advocated the Colonial interests, it has been supposed that I had some connection with them; I repeat here that which I asserted in the introduction to the second edition of the first volume, namely, that I never possessed any interest, territorial or pecuniary, direct or indirect in any colony; I am not engaged in commerce—I hold no Government office—have received no Government aid, nor have I procured the patronage of any individual or association: if, however, in zealously supporting the rights of the distant Colonists, and under the exciting influence of a warm temperament, I may have given offence to any individual, none can regret it more than myself,—and in the new edition such alterations have been made as a more mature judgment and calmer tone of thought may have suggested. I belong to no political or religious party, and I pray that those who are disposed to condemn me will wait for the forthcoming volume, in which I shall endeavour to trace as far as my mind will admit the causes of the rise and fall of Empires,—the Colonial policy of Athens, of Carthage, and of Rome; of Spain, Portugal, Holland and England,—the

tive yearly Malta shipping, and no attention would otherwise have been probably drawn to the discrepancy. I might mention several other instances; but I trust this will be sufficient to induce the indulgent reader to make due allowance for any discovered errors, a knowledge of which I shall be most thankful to receive.

connecting links between Great Britain and her Colonies, as regards commerce, finance, government, military defence, maritime strength, emigration, social ties, &c.; the advantages or disadvantages of Colonies, and the reforms which may be accomplished in unison with the advancing spirit of the age. Those who may propose to do me the honour of accompanying me in a discussion on these important subjects will, I hope, previously examine, however irksome it may be, the facts developed in these five volumes in order that a conclusion may be sooner arrived at on general principles,—and, with an humbled sense of mine own insufficiency, but a heart profoundly thankful that life and health has been spared me to proceed, however imperfectly, thus far in a work dear to my heart, because, I deem that in its principles are involved the best interests of my country—I pray that Almighty Providence (who, in its unerring wisdom and illimitable beneficence has, for purposes inscrutable to mortals, ordained the construction of this vast oceanic Empire), may imbue the minds of the British Nation with a due sense of the magnitude of their transmarine possessions,—remembering always, that from him to whom much is given much is required,—that dominion, and power, and glory were not accorded to a small island in the Atlantic for nought;—that the Divine wrath is as certain to fall on a nation that abuses benefits conferred as on an individual,—and that the Colonies of England offer the widest field for promoting the happiness of our fellow creatures of every creed, colour, and clime.*

* It would be ungrateful of me to omit returning my sincere thanks to the gentlemen connected with the different public offices, who have so urbanely aided my researches. I may more particularly allude to the Secretaries and Under-Secretaries of State for the Colonial Department; to Mr. Mayer, the highly intelligent librarian of the Colonial Office; to Mr.

P. Smith of the same department, whose knowledge of our colonial affairs is as wide as it is profound; to Mr. Irving and Mr. Woodhouse, of the Custom House; to the Court of Directors of the E. I. Company, and Mr. Melville, Mr. Auber, Mr. Mills, Mr. Harcourt, Mr. Fisher, Colonel Salmond, Mr. Izarn, and to many other gentlemen at the India House, whose names I do not even know, but who were, nevertheless, as prompt as they were liberal in affording me the aid of public documents; to Mr. Cabell, of the Board of Controul; to Mr. Porter, of the Board of Trade, whose statistical enquiries, while they have redounded to the credit of the country, will prove of infinite value in a social, commercial, and political point of view; to Mr. Capper, of the Home Office; to Sir James M'Gregor and Dr. Todd, of the Army Medical Department; to Mr. Vardon and Mr. May, the Librarian and Assistant at the House of Commons;—in fine, from the officers of every department I have met with a courteous attention, which, while requiring no expression of my thanks, I should be deficient in gratitude, were I not most cordially to tender them. Nor, among the very many private obligations received in documents, books, information, &c. can I omit noticing, with equal gratitude, those of the different Colonial Companies; viz. those of Upper and Lower Canada, of New Brunswick, of Nova Scotia and Cape Breton, of the Australian, the Tasmanian, &c.; also the Governors and official gentlemen connected with our Possessions, and particularized under their respective Colonies. From numerous merchants in London, Liverpool, &c. I have received the most important assistance, granted with a liberality entirely in harmony with the British character. From Sir Alexander Johnston and the Asiatic Society, from Sir Charles Forbes, from Captain M'Conochie and the Geographical Society, from the Geological Society, &c. I have received the most cordial support. Mr. Burge, Mr. Colquhoun, and other Agents for the Colonies, have most generously forwarded my views. To each and all those gentlemen, public and private, at home and abroad, who have so disinterestedly aided my humble efforts for the general weal, I beg to renew the tender of my heart-felt thanks, and to express a hope that, though I may have failed in my desire to prove myself worthy of their kindness, yet have I not the less strenuously endeavoured to deserve it.

LONDON, OCTOBER, 1835.

ERRATA.

P. 109. *for* '£. sterling,' over column of Commanderies, *read* No.
— 124. 5th line, *for* 'last Grand Master,' *read* 'latter Grand Masters.'
— 282. line 21, *for* £25,600, *read* £25,500.
— 377. line 12, *after* 'for 1832,' *read* 'and 1834.'
The folios 383 and 384 are repeated.
— 399. In Column of Civil Expenditure for 1832, *for* £715,550, *read* £115,550.

BRITISH POSSESSIONS
IN
EUROPE.

GIBRALTAR
NEUTRAL GROUND
Custom Ho. & Guard
San Felipe
Ruins of the Spanish Lines
Sta Barbara
Ruin
Race Course
Governors
Half a Mile
Watering Place
Jews Burial Ground
Meadows
Gardens
Barrack
Bayside Barrack
The Old Mole or Devils Tongue
Devils Tower
Town
Mole
Lines
Rock Gun 1350 Ft
Artillery Stores
Middle Hill
Catalan Bay and Village
Moorish Wall
South Port
Signal Station
Magazine
Salto Garrobo
Ragged Staff
Ordnance Wharf
Ragged Staff Battery
Ragged Staff Barracks
Ragged Staff Pavilion
Ragged Staff Guard
Engineer Park
Ragged Staff Wharf
Ragged Staff Landing Place
Ragged Staff Battery
Ragged Staff Guard
Ragged Staff Pavilion
Ragged Staff Barracks

HISTORY

OF THE

BRITISH COLONIES.

POSSESSIONS IN EUROPE.

CHAPTER I.

GIBRALTAR.

LOCALITY — HISTORY — CONQUEST BY ENGLAND AND SIEGES — DUKE OF KENT'S GOVERNORSHIP — PHYSICAL ASPECT — GEOLOGY — CLIMATE — DISEASES — ANIMAL AND VEGETABLE KINGDOMS — POPULATION BY CLASSES—GOVERNMENT—MILITARY DEFENCE—RELIGION, EDUCATION, SCHOOLS, AND THE PRESS—FINANCES—REVENUE AND EXPENDITURE—MONETARY SYSTEM—WEIGHTS AND MEASURES—COMMERCE—IMPORTS AND EXPORTS—SHIPPING, INWARDS AND OUTWARDS—AND GENERAL ADVANTAGES AS A MERCANTILE AND MARITIME STATION TO ENGLAND.

GIBRALTAR promontory or peninsula, three miles long, and seven in circumference, situate in 36.9 N. lat., 5.21 E long., and forming the southern part of the Continent of Europe,* and the key to the Mediterranean, is not the least remarkable possession of the British Crown, whether it be regarded in reference to its important maritime position, or to its being the theatre of an heroism which no English patriot can contemplate without feelings of the warmest admiration while hoping that a fortress acquired and maintained by the valour of our ancestors for a security to the dominion of the seas may be

* Europa point, the extremity of Gibraltar is sometimes erroneously called the *most* southern part of Europe; but Cabrita is two, and Tarifa five miles further to the southward.

transmitted to our posterity as an integral portion of this oceanic Empire.

The earliest accounts of this singular rock are involved in fable, or clothed in the elegant fiction of mythology. The Greeks gave, it is thought, the term CALPE, Καλπη (Urna) to the mountain by reason of its advancing into the sea from the main land, like a bucket, and Calpe together with the neighbouring Mons Abyla, on the opposite or African Coast, received the appellation of 'Pillars of Hercules,' that demi-god of the Heathens having been supposed to have either erected pillars somewhere in the neighbourhood of the Straits, or probably it was put forth that Calpe and Abyla owed their creation to the vast strength of the Herculean giant.

Whether the Phœnician navigators, Carthaginian merchants, or Roman conquerors ever settled on the 'Rock' does not appear, and it is probable that the natural strength of the position was first noticed in the beginning of the 8th century, when the Saracens or Moors invaded and made themselves masters of Spain. The particulars of this extraordinary invasion would be out of place in a work of this nature, suffice it to say, that Tarif Ebn Zarca, a general under the Moorish Sovereign or Caliph Alwalid Ebn Abdalmalic, landed A.D. 712 with an army of 12,000 men, (for the conquest of Spain) and gave orders for the erection of a strong castle on the face of the mountain for the purpose of keeping up his communication with Africa—the remains of which at present exist though its completion bore the date A.D. 725. From this period Mons Calpe took the name of *Gibel Tarif* (hence Gibraltar), or Mountain of Tarif, in compliment to the victorious Saracen general.

During the Moorish occupation of the Spanish territory, Gibraltar increased in importance, though its strength could not have been very great, as it was captured from the Moors with a small detachment of troops by Ferdinand, King of Castile, in the beginning of the 14th century; the fortress remained in the possession of the Spaniards until A.D. 1333, when Abomelique, son to the Emperor of Fez, who had been

despatched to the assistance of the Moorish King of Grenada, laid siege to Gibraltar, which after five months' attack surrendered to the Africans.

Alonzo XI. an ambitious and warlike prince, then on the throne of Castile, attempted the recapture of this important station five days after its reoccupation by the Moors, but Mahomet, King of Grenada, joining Abomelique's forces, so hemmed in the besiegers as to compel them to raise the siege. In the beginning of 1349, Alonzo again attempted the conquest of Gibraltar, but his army was forced to retire on the death of the Castilian Monarch, 24th March, 1350. Until 1410 A.D. the descendants of Abomelique continued in quiet possession of Gibraltar, when Jusaf, the third King of Grenada, availing himself of intestine feuds in the garrison, took possession thereof, but the Grenadian Alcaide was driven out by a revolt of the people in the ensuing year, and the Emperor of Morocco solicited by the inhabitants to take the fortress under his protection; accordingly he sent his brother Sayd to their relief, with 1,000 horse and 2,000 foot; the King of Grenada resolving, however, to repossess himself of Gibraltar, appeared before it in 1411, with a large fleet and army, and the Morocco troops, after suffering great hardship, were obliged to submit to the superior strength of their enemy.

In 1435, Henry De Guzman, Count de Niebla, lost his life in an attack on Gibraltar; the son of this unfortunate nobleman (John De Guzman, Duke de Medina Sidonia) was, however, more successful in 1462, having aided in the final capture of Gibraltar from the Moors, who had retained possession of the fortress for 748 years. Henry IV. of Castile and Leon was so rejoiced at the conquest, that he added Gibraltar to his royal titles* and gave it for arms *Gules*, a castle with a key pendant to the gate, *or*, (alluding to its being the key to the Mediterranean) which arms have been continued down to the present day.

In 1502, during the reign of Ferdinand and Isabella, Gib-

* Gibraltar had heretofore been the chief city in the kingdom of Abomelique.

raltar was annexed to the Crown of Spain instead of being under the control of the Duke De Medina Sidonia, but its strength could not have been very great in 1540, as we find Piali Hamet, one of Barbarossa's Captains, surprised and pillaged Gibraltar; during the reign, however, of Charles V. the fortifications of the town were modernized, and from additions made by Daniel Speckel, the Emperor's engineer, it was thought to be impregnable.

While under the Government of Spain, Gibraltar was a place upon which divers kings of Spain had bestowed special privileges on account of its presenting the first point of attack from the Moors of Barbary. Among other privileges by Ferdinand the IV. and Alonzo the XIth. it was declared to be a place of refuge for all malefactors, being a safeguard and protection granted them not only while there, but a residence of a year conferred the same privilege elsewhere. This protection, however did not extend to treason,—to taking a man's wife from him—or to breaking a treaty made by the King; nor did the protection extend to those committing the above mentioned crimes within the territory.

Little further is known of Gibraltar until the year 1704, when Sir George Rooke, who had been sent into the Mediterranean with a large fleet to assist Charles Archduke of Austria in recovering the crown of Spain, finding nothing of importance to be done, called a council of war on the 17th July, 1704, near Tetuan, where, after several schemes were proposed (such as a second attack on Cadiz) and rejected, it was resolved to attempt the conquest of Gibraltar. On the 21st July, the fleet arrived in the bay; 1,800 English and Dutch were landed on the isthmus, under the command of the Prince of Hesse D'Armstadt; the Governor was summoned to surrender, and on his refusal, a cannonade was opened on the town by the ships, under the orders of Admirals Byng and Vanderdussen; in five or six hours the enemy were driven from their guns, especially from the New Molehead, which the admiral wishing to possess himself of, ordered Captain Whitaker, with the armed boats, ashore;

Captains Hicks and Jumper however first pushed ashore in their pinnaces, upon which the Spaniards blew up the fortifications, killing two lieutenants and 40 men, and wounding 60. Notwithstanding this slaughter, the British kept possession of their ground, and being now joined by Captain Whitaker, advanced and took possession of a small bastion, half way between the mole and the town. The Governor (the Marquis de Saluces) being again summoned, thought it prudent to capitulate, for although the works were strong, mounting 100 pieces of cannon, well appointed with ammunition and stores, yet the garrison consisted of but 150 men, exclusive of the inhabitants; hostages were therefore exchanged, and on the 24th July, 1704, the Prince of Hesse took possession of the gates of Gibraltar, after a loss on the side of the British,—*killed*, two lieutenants, one master, and 57 sailors; and in *wounded*, one captain, seven lieutenants, one boatswain, and 207 sailors.

Gibraltar has ever since continued in the hands of the English; not, however, without frequent attempts of their enemies to wrest it from them. The Courts of Madrid and Spain resolved on an immediate attempt at its recapture, and the Marquis de Villadarias, a Grandee of Spain, aided by six battalions of French troops, opened his trenches against the fortress on the 11th of October, 1704, and soon made many breaches in the outworks: Sir John Leake, who had been left at Lisbon with a fleet for the succour of the garrison in case of need, threw into Gibraltar six months provisions and ammunition, detaching on shore at the same time a body of 500 sailors, to assist in repairing the breaches caused by the enemy's fire. The resolution of the besiegers amounted to desperation; though the British admiral was before the town, a scheme was formed for surprizing the garrison; and, on the 31st of October, 500 volunteers took the sacrament, and departed with a determination never to return until they had retaken Gibraltar.

A goatherd conducted this forlorn hope to the side of the rock near Cave Guard, and on the first night they lodged themselves unperceived in St. Michael's Cave; on the suc-

ceeding evening they scaled Charles V's. wall, surprized and massacred the guard at Middle Hill, and got up several hundred of the party from below who had been ordered to sustain them; a strong detachment of British grenadiers marched immediately from the town, and attacked the invaders with such a terrific onslaught that 150 of these gallant Spaniards were killed on the rocks or driven over the precipices, and a colonel, with 30 officers, together with the remainder of the party, taken prisoners; the French, who were to have supported them from below having left them to their fate.

The combined forces continued the siege with great vigour, and Sir John Leake threw 2,000 additional men, with a proportionate quantity of ammunition and provisions, into the garrison; the Spanish general was also reinforced with a considerable body of infantry, and on the 11th and 12th of January, 1705, made two attacks with an endeavour to carry the fortress by storming a breach which had been made in a round tower; they were, however, after some difficulty repulsed, with a considerable loss in killed and wounded.

With the new year the French and Spaniards renewed their preparations for attack; and the English ministry, alive to the importance of Gibraltar, ordered out reinforcements under Sir Thomas Dilkes and Sir John Hardy, to join Admiral Sir John Leake at Lisbon. The fleet, consisting of 28 English, 4 Dutch, and 8 Portuguese men-of-war, having on board two battalions, being now refitted, sailed on the 6th March, captured three French ships of the line, drove ashore and burnt the admiral's and another ship, and so strengthened the garrison that Marshal Tesse, a Frenchman, who had succeeded the Spanish Marquis, withdrew his troops from the trenches, and contented himself with forming a blockade to prevent the English ravaging the country.

The siege was now considered at an end; and during its continuance the combined forces of France and Spain lost by casualties and sickness at least 10,000 men; the loss of the British being not more than 400. By a separate treaty concluded with Spain on the 13th July, 1713, the following terms were agreed on:—

'The Catholic King does hereby for himself, his heirs and successors, yield to the crown of Great Britain the full and entire property of the town and castle of Gibraltar, together with the port, fortification, and forts thereunto belonging; and he gives up the said property to be held and enjoyed absolutely with all manner of right for ever, without any exception or impediment whatsoever; but that abuses and frauds may be avoided by importing any kind of goods, the Catholic King wills, and means it to be understood, that the above named property be yielded to Great Britain without any territorial jurisdiction, and without any open communications by land with the country round about: yet whereas the communication by sea with the coast of Spain may not at all times be safe or open, and thereby it may happen that the garrison and other inhabitants of Gibraltar may be brought to great straits; and as it is the intention of the Catholic King only that fraudulent importation of goods should, as is above said, be hindered by any inland communication, it is therefore provided, that in such cases it may be lawful to purchase for ready money in the neighbouring territories of Spain provisions, and other things necessary for the use of the garrison and inhabitants, and the ships lying in the harbour; and her Britannic Majesty, at the request of the Catholic King, does consent and agree that no leave shall be given, under any pretence, either for Jews or Moors to reside or have any dwellings in the said town of Gibraltar; and that no refuge shall be allowed to any Moorish ships of war in the harbour of the town, whereby the communication between Spain and Ceuta may be obstructed, or the coasts of Spain be infested by the incursions of the Moors: her Majesty, the Queen of Great Britain, does further promise, that the free exercise of their religion shall be indulged to the Roman Catholic inhabitants of the town; and in case it shall seem meet to the crown of Great Britain to alienate therefrom the property of of the said town of Gibraltar, that the preference of having the same shall always be given to the crown of Spain.'

The Spaniards did not abandon their hopes; in 1720 the

Marquis de Leda collected a formidable force under pretence of relieving Ceuta, a Spanish fortress in Barbary, but in reality with an intention of surprising Gibraltar, then in a weak and almost defenceless state. The British ministry had timely notice of the enemy's intention; Colonel Kane, Governor of Minorca, was ordered immediately to embark with part of his garrison (500 men) for Gibraltar, and this assistance, together with the spirited conduct of the British Commodore induced the Marquis of Leda to sail for Ceuta. Gibraltar remained unmolested until 1727, when the Count De Las Torres, commanding the Spanish forces, collected 20,000 men, and advanced towards the garrison: from February to June the Spaniards prosecuted the siege with great vigour and bravery, and the garrison being reinforced from England and the sea-way open, supplies were abundantly poured into Gibraltar, when, on the 12th June an armistice took place on the news of preliminaries being signed for a general peace reaching the belligerents. During the siege the garrison lost about 300 killed and wounded, and 70 cannon and 30 mortars burst: the loss of the Spaniards was estimated at 3,000 men. On the close of the contest the Spaniards erected lines and forts across the isthmus, about a mile from the garrison, effectually preventing any communication with the country, and by means of the western fort, called St. Philip's, commanded the best anchorage on the side of the bay next the garrison.

Nothing deserving of note occurred for several years, excepting in 1760,—a projected mutiny of two British regiments, who being a long time stationed on the rock, and seeing little prospect of being relieved, formed a plot to surprise and massacre the officers; the conspirators, however, to the number of 730, had their schemes frustrated by means of a quarrel in a wine house; one man was executed, 10 condemned, and tranquillity restored.

When hostilities commenced in 1762, the Spaniards made no effort for the conquest of Gibraltar, but the contest between Great Britain and her N. American Colonies in 1777, and

the subsequent hostilities between England and France seemed to afford a favourable opportunity to Spain, who on the 16th June, 1779, presented a hostile manifesto to the Court of London, espousing the part of France.

The main object of the Court of Madrid was evidently the capture of Gibraltar; as Spain, in common with the other continental powers, thought the loss to England of her N. American Colonies would strike such a blow at her maritime strength as would completely overwhelm her — forgetting that England still possessed the Canadas and the West Indies, and that her Eastern possessions were rapidly augmenting. On the 21st June, 1779, the communication between Spain and Gibraltar was closed by orders from Madrid, and even before any reply was given by the British ministry to proposals for a pacification (which however it was well known would be rejected), overtures had been privately made to the Emperor of Morocco to farm his ports of Tetuan, Tangier, and Laroche, in order to cut off Gibraltar, from its domestic market,—in fact, the principal source of its supplies.

The strength of the garrison when this memorable siege commenced was as follows :* General G. A. Elliott, Governor; Lieutenant-General R. Boyd, Lieutenant-Governor; Major-General De La Motte, commanding the Hanoverian Brigade.

	Officers.	Staff.	Sergeants.	Drummers.	Rank and File.
Artillery	25	0	17	15	428
12th Regiment	26	3	29	22	506
39th Ditto.....	25	4	29	22	506
56th Ditto.....	23	4	30	22	508
58th Ditto.....	25	3	29	22	526
72nd Ditto, or R. M. V...	29	4	47	22	944
Hanoverians:					
Hardenbergs	16	13	42	14	367
Reden's.....	15	12	42	14	361
De La Motte's.....	17	16	42	14	367
Engineers, &c.....	8	0	6	2	106
Total	209	59	313	169	4,632

Making an army of 5,382 men.

* It is due here to Colonel Drinkwater to observe, that for the details of this siege, as also for the courteous loan of several works on Gibraltar, I am indebted to that highly respected officer. No person can peruse Col. D.'s narrative of events in which he bore an honoured part without

To particularize the details of the siege would be beyond my limits and object, the leading features will therefore be sufficient. The Spaniards, after cutting off the communication between the fortress and the main land, blockaded the port with a superior naval force, not however with such strictness as to prevent several foreign flags, laden with provisions, from evading the vigilance of the enemy's cruisers. During the remainder of the year, viz. from June to December, 1779. nothing further was done by the Spaniards than strengthening their lines, and pushing forward with unceasing vigilance the extensive works with which they were preparing to bombard the fortress, which seemed to be quite neglected by England; indeed famine began to erect its gaunt and horrid form—one woman died of want, many were so enfeebled that it was not without great care they recovered; and thistles, dandelions, wild leeks, &c. were for some time the daily nourishment of numbers.*

On the 12th January, 1780, the Spaniards fired 10 shots at the fortress from Fort St. Philip, several of which came into the town, and wounded the first person struck during the siege, which singular enough happened to be a woman. On the 17th January, Admiral Sir George Brydges Rodney arrived from England, with a fleet of 21 sail of the line, and

equally admiring the modesty and fidelity of the historian. The very minutiæ of detail in which the '*History of the late Siege*' abounds renders it not only a portion of the famous rock itself, but also affords an imperishable monument of British endurance and bravery.

* During this extreme scarcity of provisions, a singular mode of hatching chickens was practised by the Hanoverians. The eggs were placed with some cotton, wool, or other warm substance, in a tin case of such construction as to be heated either by a lamp or hot water; and, by a proper attention to the temperature of heat, the eggs were commonly hatched in the usual time of a hen's sitting. A *capon* was then taught to rear them: the feathers were plucked from his breast and belly; he was then scourged with a bunch of nettles, and placed upon the young hatch, whose downy warmth afforded such comfort to the bare and smarting parts, that he from that period reared them up with equal care and tenderness as though they had been his own offspring.

a large convoy of merchantmen for the relief of the garrison, a circumstance which of course diffused general joy, which was not a little encreased from the fact of a complete victory having been gained by the British over the Spanish Admiral, whose vessel, together with three others of his squadron, were taken, one driven ashore, another blown up during the engagement, and the rest dispersed.

It was in this fleet that our present gracious Sovereign (then Prince William Henry) visited Gibraltar, and in contributing towards its relief, made his first appearance as a defender of that throne, which it has pleased Providence to permit His Majesty to adorn. His Royal Highness served as a midshipman under Admiral Digby, in the Prince George, and on one occasion in particular a circumstance occurred which Englishmen may be proud of. The Spanish Admiral Don Juan Langara, (then a prisoner aboard the British fleet) visiting Admiral Digby one morning, was of course introduced to His Royal Highness; during the conference between the Admirals, Prince William Henry retired, and when it was intimated that Don Juan wished to retire, His Royal Highness appeared as the Midshipman on duty, and respectfully informed the Admiral that the boat was manned. The Spaniard could not contemplate the son of England's Monarch acting as a petty officer unmoved, and turning to Admiral Digby and his suite, he exclaimed, "*Well does Great Britain merit the Empire of the sea when the humblest stations in her navy are occupied by Princes of the Blood!*"

Sir George Rodney having recruited the garrison with supplies, and added to its strength the second battalion of the 73rd regiment (1000 strong) at the same time removing all useless mouths, left Gibraltar to make its own defence. Nothing of moment occurred from January to June, excepting that the scurvy broke out in the garrison, disabling many hands, and the enemy attempted to destroy the few ships we had in the New Mole, by means of fire ships, which attempt was however happily frustrated by the coolness and intre-

pidity of our seamen who grappled with the floating masses of fire, and towed them clear of the anchorage under the walls, where when broken up, they proved valuable to the besieged. The enemy continued to the close of the year 1780, extending the different branches of their approaches, and maintaining a rigorous blockade rather than using any active annoyances; and through the neglect, in England, of the ministry in refusing a trifling aid to the Emperor of Morocco, the Spaniards succeeded in getting temporary possession of the Barbary Ports, and by the removal of our Consul (Mr. Logie) entirely cut off the garrison from those supplies which had heretofore proved of the utmost value.

In April, 1781, the distress of the garrison became very great, and starvation again appeared, a point which it was the grand object of the Spaniards to attain; but on the 12th, our brave and patient countrymen were gladdened with the sight of 100 merchants vessels entering their bay under convoy of Admiral Darby, and several line of battle ships. The enemy, on perceiving this relief to the besieged, made instant preparations for bombarding the fortress, and as the van of the convoy came to an anchor off the New Mole and Rosia Bay, the Spaniards opened a tremendous cannonade upon Gibraltar from 114 pieces of artillery, including 50 thirteen-inch mortars. The bombardment was continued on the 13th, several soldiers were killed and wounded in their quarters, and Ensign Martin wounded with splinters of stones. On the 14th, the effects of the continued bombardment were felt in the destruction of some wine-houses, which was the signal for a license to the soldiery, who were betrayed into most lamentable irregularities; some died of immediate intoxication, and several were with difficulty recovered by oils and tobacco-water; a great quantity of liquor and goods were wantonly destroyed in revenge for the high prices which the Jews and other hucksters had been charging for provisions, which they had privately concealed in abundance; and among other instances of caprice and extravagance, there

was one of roasting a pig at a fire made entirely of *Cinnamon:* the timely adoption however of rigorous measures put an end to such scenes.

On the 15th April, the bombardment was continued with great vivacity; not content with discharging their ordnance regularly, the Spaniards saluted the fortress almost every instant with a volley of eight or ten cannon, besides mortars, and their destructive gun-boats kept up a smart attack on our shipping; our batteries remained silent, and the guns at Willis's (against which the attacks of the enemy were principally directed) were drawn behind the merlons to secure them against the effect of the enemy's shot. In a few days Gibraltar began to feel the effects of so heavy a bombardment, and every possible effort was made to repair the demolition caused by so destructive a cannonade.

So brisk was the Spanish fire on the 21st April, that 42 rounds were numbered in two minutes, the only cessation was at mid-day, when the troops retired to enjoy the Siesta, so common and so useful in a warm climate. In the beginning of May, the enemy's fire seldom exceeded 1000 rounds in the 24 hours, and their batteries were much shaken by the firing, but the mortar and gun-boats owing to our silence advanced so near as to throw several shells into the garrison with disastrous effects. Towards the close of the month the bombardment was considerably abated, and in the beginning of June, decreased to about 500 rounds in the 24 hours.

Although the bombardment in June scarcely exceeded 450 rounds in the 24 hours, yet their shot though fired at so great a distance, frequently pierced seven solid feet of sand-bag work, and the batteries at Willis's were again greatly damaged. Throughout July the Spanish fire slackened, but much injury was done by their gun-boats; in August the bombardment diminished to three shells in the 24 hours, but the blockade was rigorously revived, and their advances pushed forward with casks covered by fascines and sand in front.

In September, the firing from the garrison was increased, exceeding sometimes 700 rounds in the 24 hours, to which

the enemy frequently returned 800 or upwards, while our men became so accustomed to the fire as to incautiously expose themselves, scarcely deigning even to notice an unexploded shell at their feet; the result of this callousness to danger was the loss of several gallant men. The fire slackened during October, excepting on the 20th, when a brisk attack was kept up on a new battery erected about 1,200 yards from the grand battery. Our artillery fired 1,596 shot, 530 shells, 10 carcases and 2 light balls; and the enemy returned 1,012 shot, and 302 shells; the loss on the British side was not inconsiderable, but supposed on the Spanish to have been very great. In November the Spaniards added to their parallels on the W., exhibiting a perfect and formidable appearance, which General Elliot saw if allowed to go on would prove most destructive to the garrison; he, therefore, formed the daring project of making a sortie from the garrison for the destruction of these works, and which the enemy, flushed with the consciousness of superior numbers, never dreamed of. At midnight, on the 26th November, 1781, a chivalrous band, consisting of nearly 2,000 men, assembled on the red sands in three columns, and when the moon had nearly finished her nightly course, began their desperate march on the Spanish lines;—these were speedily reached, the enemy's fire received, the parapets gallantly mounted, and the ardour of the assailants being irresistible, the Spaniards gave way on every side, abandoning in an instant, and with the utmost precipitation, those works which had cost them so much expense, and employed so many months to perfect. A party of sailors aided our artillery in the work of destruction; the flames spread with astonishing rapidity; columns of fire and smoke rolled from the works, illuminating the surrounding country; and the Spaniards, whether from astonishment or fear, made no effort to save the lines, although only within a few hundred yards of their batteries, mounting 135 pieces of heavy artillery, which however kept up a ridiculous fire on the fortress. In one hour the object of the sortie was completed, trains laid to the magazines, and as the

rear of our little band of heroes entered the garrison, the principal Spanish magazine blew up with a tremendous explosion, throwing up vast masses of timber, which added to the general conflagration. Our loss on performing this splendid achievement was only four privates killed, a lieutenant and 24 men wounded, and one missing. The history of the British army, pregnant as it is with gallant deeds, presents none more daring or better executed than the one just detailed, in which not even a musket, working tool, or other implement was left behind. For several days the Spaniards seemed unable to act after their late disgrace; their batteries continued in flames, nor were any attempts made to extinguish the fire. In the beginning of December they roused from their reverie, and upwards of 1,000 men set to work in an endeavour to reconstruct the parallels.

The bombardment had now continued from April 12th to the close of the year, and the British loss was as follows:—

	Officers.	Sergeants.	Drummers.	Rank and File.	Total.
Killed and died of wounds..	3	10	1	108	122
Disabled	2	7	1	36	46
Wounded	13	22	6	359	400

So well were the enemy's guns directed, that *one* shot coming through the capped embrasures on the Princess Amelia's battery (Willis's), took *seven* legs off *four* men of the 72nd and 73rd regiments, and wounded a fifth. When brisk firing was going on, two boys, with extraordinary quick eyes, were usually stationed with any large party to inform the men when the Spaniard's fire was directed towards them; their sight was so good as to see the enemy's shot almost the instant it quitted the gun; and in the instance above mentioned, one of these boys had been reproving the men for not attending to his warnings, and had just turned his head when he observed the fatal shot coming, and instantly called out to take care; his judicious caution was however of no avail. From January to May, 1782, little occurred to diversify even the monotony

of a siege; and in the early part of May, 24 hours elapsed in which, for the first time during 13 months, there had been a cessation of firing. In fact, at this period the enemy were making preparations for a grand *floating* battery of fire-proof ships, with which they resolved to aid a powerful bombardment from the land side, which however was at intervals still continued, and often with destructive effects. In July the Duke De Crillon assumed the command of the siege, and the combined army was understood to amount to 45 battalions of infantry; the floating battery, with which it was intended to annihilate Gibraltar, had, it was said, 10 ships constructed for the occasion, fortified six or seven feet thick on the larboard side, with green timber, bolted with iron, cork, junk, and raw hides; gun-proof on the top, with a descent for the shells to glide off; they were to be moored within half a gun-shot of the walls with iron chains, and large boats with mantlets, to let down with hinges, were to be ready for the disembarkation of 40,000 disciplined troops, headed by the Count D'Artois, brother to the King of France, and covered by a squadron of men-of-war, bombs, ketches, and gun boats.

In August ten thousand men were at work on the Spanish lines within 800 yards of Gibraltar; the parallel embraced each shore of the Isthmus with a stupendous communication or outwork in front, the epaulment entirely raised with sand bags from 10 to 12 feet high, with a proportionate thickness. The Spanish Gazette described the parallel as of 230 toises (a toise = a fathom = 6 feet) in length, and composed of 1,600,000 sand bags.

Our brave fellows evinced no fear on observing these determined efforts to destroy them; the strength of the garrison, with the marine brigade, including officers, was about 7,500 men, of whom 400 were in hospital, and with this comparative handful, the assaults of the enemy were quietly provided against. As an indication of the chivalrous spirit in which this desperate contest was carried on both by the Spaniards and the British, I subjoin the following correspondence be-

'tween the Duke de Crillon and General Eliott, shortly after the former took the command of the Spanish and French forces.

'TO HIS EXCELLENCY GENERAL ELIOTT.

'*Camp of Buena-Vista, 19th August*, 1782.

'Sir,—His Royal Highness, Count d'Artois, who has received permission from the King, his brother, to assist at the siege as a volunteer in the combined army, of which their most Christian and Catholic Majesties have honoured me with the command, arrived in this camp the 15th inst.

'This young Prince has been pleased, in passing through Madrid, to take charge of some letters which had been sent to that capital from this place, and which are addressed to persons belonging to your garrison: his Royal Highness has desired me to transmit them to you, and that to this mark of his goodness and attention I should add the strongest expressions of esteem for your person and character. I feel the greatest pleasure in giving this mark of condescension in this august Prince, as it furnishes me with a pretext, which I have been anxiously looking for these two months that I have been in camp, to assure you of the high esteem I have conceived for your Excellency, of the sincere desire I feel of deserving yours, and of the pleasure to which I look forward of becoming your friend, after I shall have learned to render myself worthy of the honour, by facing you as an enemy. His Highness the Duke de Bourbon, who arrived here 24 hours after the Count d'Artois, desires also that I should assure you of his particular esteem. Permit me, Sir, to offer a few trifles for your table, of which I am sure you must stand in need, as I know you live entirely on vegetables: I should be glad to know what kind you like best. I shall add a few game for the gentlemen of your household, and some ice, which I presume will not be disagreeable in the excessive heat of this climate at this season of the year. I hope you will be obliging enough to accept the small portion which I send with this letter. I have the honour to be, &c.

(Signed) 'B. B. DUC DE CRILLON.'

'TO HIS EXCELLENCY THE DUC DE CRILLON, &c. &c.

'*Gibraltar, August 20th,* 1782.

'Sir,—I find myself highly honoured by your obliging letter of yesterday, in which your Excellency was so kind as to inform me of the arrival in your camp of His Royal Highness the Count d'Artois, and the Duke de Bourbon, to serve as volunteers at the siege. These Princes have shewn their judgment in making choice of a master in the art of war, whose abilities cannot fail to form great warriors. I am overpowered with the condescension of His Royal Highness in suffering some letters for persons in this town to be conveyed from Madrid in his carriages. I flatter myself that your Excellency will give my most profound respect to His Royal Highness, and to the Duc de Bourbon, for the expressions of esteem with which they have been pleased to honour so insignificant a person as I am.

'I return a thousand thanks to your Excellency for your handsome present of fruits, vegetables, and game. You will excuse me however, I trust, when I assure you, that in accepting your present I have broken through a resolution to which I had faithfully adhered since the beginning of the war; and that was, never to receive or procure, by any means whatever, any provisions or other commodity for my own private use: so that, without any preference every thing is sold publicly here; and the private soldier, if he has money, can become a purchaser, as well as the governor. I confess, I make it a point of honour to partake both of plenty and scarcity in common with the lowest of my brave fellow soldiers. This furnishes me with an excuse for the liberty I now take, of entreating your Excellency not to heap any more favours on me of this kind, as in future I cannot convert your presents to my own private use. Indeed, to be plain with your Excellency, though vegetables at this season are scarce with us, every man has got a quantity proportioned to the labour which he has bestowed in raising them. The English are naturally fond of gardening and cultivation; and here we find our amusement in it, during the intervals of rest from public

duty. The promise which the Duke de Crillon makes, of honouring me in proper time and place with his friendship, lays me under infinite obligations. The interest of our Sovereigns being once solidly settled, I shall with eagerness embrace the first opportunity to avail myself of so precious a treasure.

'I have the honour to be, &c.

G. A. ELIOTT.'

The fire from both parties was very brisk in the beginning of September, that of our batteries set fire repeatedly to their lines, while so well were their guns served, that Major Martin, of the Artillery, had the cock of his hat shot off close to the crown by a 26 pounder; the Major however experienced no other injury than being stunned by the wind of the shot. On the morning of the 8th September an almost simultaneous attack was made on all sides; *nine* line of battle ships passed along the garrison, discharging several broadsides at the works; 15 gun and mortar boats approached the town, and 170 pieces of ordnance, all of large calibre, opened in one magnificent discharge from the Spanish lines. The enemy kept up this tremendous fire on the 9th, resumed it at gunfire on the 10th, and at 7 A. M. had discharged (including the expenditure on the 8th) 5,527 shot and 2,302 shells, exclusive of the number fired by the men-of-war and mortar boats. The bombardment continued at the rate of 4,000 shots in the 24 hours, when on the morning of the 12th September the combined fleets of France and Spain, amounting to seven three deckers, thirty-one ships of two decks, three frigates, and a number of xebeques, bomb ketches, and hospital ships, entered the bay, and in the afternoon were all at anchor between the Orange Grove and Algesiras. It required stout British hearts not to quail before this formidable armament; 47 sail of the line, 10 battering ships, deemed perfect in design, and esteemed invincible, carrying 212 guns, innumerable frigates, xebeques, bomb ketches, cutters, gun and mortar boats, and disembarking craft, were then assembled in Gibraltar Bay; on the land side were the most stu-

pendous batteries and works, mounting 200 pieces of heavy ordnance, protected by an army of 40,000 men, commanded by a victorious and active general, in the immediate presence of two princes of the blood royal of France, and many of the highest nobility of both countries, the *coup d'œil* affording a grand military spectacle such as the annals of war had never before, and has never since presented. The Spaniards and French deemed success certain; our little band of countrymen hoped for the best; and as the danger thickened around, instead of yielding to despair, their courage and presence of mind rose with the emergency; indeed it is impossible, even at this distance of time, to reflect without enthusiasm on the conduct of those men who on so eventful an occasion raised higher than it had ever yet been—the true nobility of Britons.

The batteries from the Spanish lines, which had continued their formidable fire, opened on the morning of the 13th September, 1782, and were soon sustained by the battering ships, which moved to the attack in admirable order, actually mooring within 900 yards of the king's bastion, and in a few minutes *four hundred pieces* of the heaviest artillery were playing at the same moment from the garrison and their assailants. After some hours, the battering ships were found to be no less formidable than they were represented; our heaviest shells often rebounded off their sloped summits, whilst 32 lb. shot seemed incapable of making an impression on their dense sides. Frequently the besieged flattered themselves that these floating masses of destruction were on fire, but by application of fire engines from within, the incipient conflagration was speedily extinguished. About noon the enemy's cannon, which had been previously too much elevated, became very destructive, and we then commenced what our troops had long looked forward to with a prospect of success—the firing of *red hot balls.* The fury of the British troops was now roused to an almost superhuman pitch; the whole of their gigantic energies was directed towards the battering ships; they disregarded in a great measure the land batteries, and our guns absolutely vomited forth fire in the shape of

red hot balls, carcasses, and shells of every description. For some hours the fierce conflict continued with doubtful success; but towards evening the incredible labour of the English troops began to be crowned with success: the Admiral's ship was in flames, the second in command was soon in the same awful condition, and by 8 P. M. the firing had almost entirely ceased from the attacking squadron. Our firing was continued throughout the night, and the cries, shrieks and moans of the dead and dying told a piteous tale, which the morning's dawn painfully verified. About two o'clock on the morning of the 14th, one of the battering ships was a terrific blaze from stem to stern; another to the southward was in a similar state, and the flames threw a vivid light over the scene of desolation around, which was heightened by six other of the battering ships being on fire between three and four A. M. Yet amidst all this misery and suffering it is delightful to record the triumph of humanity, even over the brutalizing passions of war;—Brigadier Curtis, with the sailors of the Navy, risked repeatedly their own lives in saving their enemies from the devouring element, when they had been abandoned by their terrified fellow combatants and countrymen. Of the six battering ships which were in flames, three blew up before 11 o'clock, the other three burnt to the water's edge, the magazines having been wetted by their officers previous to their escape; the remaining two large battering ships the victors were in the hope of saving as trophies, but shortly after one of them took fire and blew up with a terrible explosion; the other was burnt by our sailors, as it was found impossible to finally save it. The loss sustained by the Spaniards could never be well ascertained, but from the numbers seen dead on board, it could not have been less than 2,000 men,* including the prisoners; the casualties of the garrison on the contrary were trifling, consisting in killed, of one officer, two serjeants and 13 rank and file; and in wounded, of five officers and 63 rank and file; and let it be

* The battering ships had, it was said, 142 guns in use, and 70 in reserve; the whole manned by 5,260 men.

remembered that the enemy had in this action more than 300 pieces of heavy ordnance in play, whilst the garrison had only 80 cannon, seven mortars and nine howitzers in opposition, with which however they expended upwards of 8,300 rounds (more than *half* of which were *hot shot*), and 716 barrels of gunpowder. The Spaniards were so much mortified by this defeat, that preparations were made for a desperate attack, with a view to carry, if possible, the garrison by storm; but the project was overruled by the Duke De Crillon, who thought such a dernier resort would expose the army and fleet to immediate destruction. The whole efforts of the enemy were now directed towards the land batteries, and every effort made to extend their works and destroy ours, by firing at the garrison from 600 to 1,000 shot every 24 hours, which was continued with more or less vivacity throughout the months of September, October and November; during which period, and in the face of such powerful artillery, our engineers rebuilt the whole flank of Prince Orange bastion (120 feet in length), with solid masonry, a fact scarcely paralleled in any siege. The enemy now turned a great part of their attention towards blowing up the N. part of the rock by means of a mine, a project which they also formed during the siege of 1727; but being much annoyed in this attempt, they began to relinquish the idea of recovering Gibraltar by force, and towards the conclusion of December, and throughout the month of January, 1783, confined themselves to annoying the garrison by attacks of gun and mortar boats in regular reliefs, which caused considerable mischief. February, 1783, was ushered in by an animated fire from our works, the effects of which were felt throughout the Spanish lines; when, to the relief of the besiegers, rather than of the besieged, on the second day of the month, the Duke de Crillon announced by a flag of truce to General Eliott, that the preliminaries of a general peace had been signed between Great Britain, France and Spain. When the boats of the heretofore belligerents met, the Spaniards rose up with transports of joy, shouting, "*We are all friends!*" and delivered the

letters of peace with the greatest satisfaction; in the evening all firing finally ceased; on the 5th the port of Gibraltar was declared *open*, and an amicable intercourse was commenced between the Spanish and British lines, while the latter were waiting the official communication of the intelligence from London, which at length arrived on the 10th March, 1784.

Thus ended a siege which, taken in connexion as to its duration (three years, seven months, and twelve days), the powerful opposing force of the enemy, and the quantity of ammunition expended, is not probably to be paralleled in the annals of ancient or modern warfare. The nation at home, as well they might be, were proud of the defence which a handful of Britons had made against the united efforts of Spain and France; the cordial thanks of both houses of Parliament were given to the gallant defenders of Gibraltar, and the brave veteran General Eliott was invested with the most honourable Order of the Bath, as a mark of his Majesty's royal approbation of the heroic defence which this distinguished officer had made of one of England's maritime outposts.

The trifling loss of the besieged was not a little remarkable when the strength of the besiegers is considered—it was as follows:—

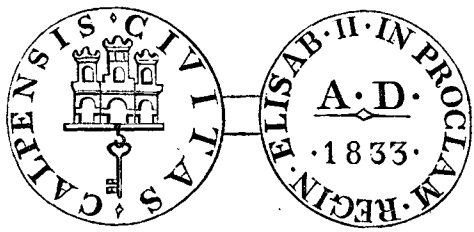
	Officers.	Sergeants.	Drummers.	Rank and File.	Total.	
Killed	5	19	2	197	223	869 died.
Died of wounds	1	6	2	101	110	
Died of sickness	7	22	2	505	536	
Disabled by wounds ..	3	13	2	120	138	1008 wounded.
Wounded, but recovered	31	46	20	773	870	
Deserted	..	..	..	43	43*	

The ammunition expended, consisted, on our side, of shot, 57,163; shells, 129,151; grape, 12,681; carcases, 926; light balls, 679; making a total of 200,000 rounds; and with the

* The desertions from the Spanish side to the English were far more numerous.

gun-boat addition of 4,728 shot—205,328;—the gunpowder expended was very near 8,000 barrels, and the number of ordnance damaged and destroyed during the siege, 53. As regards similar details on the Spanish side, we have but few data. According to a laboratory account, the number of shot and shells from the lines was—shot, 175,741; shells, 68,363; and from the Spanish gun-boats, in shot and shells, 14,283; shewing 258,387 rounds, all of a heavy nature. The number of barrels of powder expended in this immense discharge, or the number of ordnance destroyed, has never been ascertained, it must however have been very great.

Since this memorable period, Gibraltar has remained in our possession unmolested. Few events have occurred requiring notice in a work of this nature. The chronological account of the rulers and governors of Gibraltar, from 1309 to 1835, is thus shewn; and it will be seen that Gibraltar was several times a kingly title of the monarchs of Spain;—indeed, I find by a letter from the Rock, under date 17th July, 1835, that the present ruler at Madrid has taken the title of *Queen of Gibraltar!* the reason for which is thus explained:—On our capture of Gibraltar in 1704, the Spaniards left it, and hutted round a hermitage of St. Roque, situated on a hill about five miles from the fortress; from huts they began to build houses, and ultimately the place obtained, on account of the loyalty of the inhabitants, the designation of a city, which was endowed with diverse privileges; and the people of St. Roque have, ever since, in all public acts, styled themselves *the inhabitants of Gibraltar residing at St. Roque.* In 1833, however, on the proclamation of Isabella the Second, the Roquians went still further, by styling their city or town *itself,* on a medal struck for the occasion—Gibraltar (Calpe, the ancient name of the rock). The following is a fac-simile of the medal:—On the one side is the arms of Gibraltar, given to it by Ferdinand and Isabella, consisting of a Castle, and Key pendent, with the words, "CALPENSIS CIVITAS"—and on the obverse, "IN PROCLAM. REGIN. ELIZAB. II."



I give the foregoing, because I think it deserving the prompt attention of our Government, who should require an explanation from the Queen Isabella, and a withdrawal of the title at once, to prevent any future claim.

Until our occupation of Gibraltar, the following were the principal rulers:—

1309-10. Ferdinand IV., King of Castile, took Gibraltar from the Moors, and lived here a short time. The place not of much importance before this time.

1331. Dn. Vasco Perez de Meyra was Governor.

1333. Abomelic, son of the Emperor of Fez, took Gibraltar, and added it to his royal titles.

1349-50. Albuhacen, son of Albuhacen (of Fez) was in possession of Gibraltar.

1427. Gibraltar was under the usurper and tyrant Mahomet, called the little.

1462. Dn. Juan de Guzman, first Duke of the House of Medina Sidonia, took Gibraltar from the Moors, and Henry IV. of Castile, took the title of King of Gibraltar, as Abomelic had done before in 1333.

1462. Pedro de Porras was made Governor by Henry, afterwards Dn. Bertrand de la Cueva. The Duke of Medina recovered it, and it was added to his titles.

1502. Gibraltar was united to the Crown of Ferdinand and Isabella, and had Spanish governors till 1704.

1704. Marquis de Salinas, the Spanish governor.

Since the British conquest, the following is the Succession of Governors, Commandants, &c. of the Fortress of Gibraltar, from 1704 to the year 1835.

Prince of Hesse . .	1704
Maj.-Gen. Ramos, Governor	1705
Colonel Elliot . .	1706
General Stanwix . .	1711
Colonel Congreve . .	1713
Colonel Cotton . .	1716
Major Battereau . .	1718
Major Hetherington . .	1719
Colonel Kane . . .	1720
Lord Portmore . .	1721
Col. Hargrave, Commanding	1722
General Clayton . .	1728
General Sabine, Governor	1730
General Columbine . .	1739
General Clayton, Governor; Gen. Hargrave, Command.	1739
General Bland . . .	1748
Lord George Beauclerc .	1751
Colonel Herbert . .	1752
General Braddock . .	1754
General Fowkes, Governor	1754
Lord Tyrawley . .	1756
Earl of Panmure, Command.	1757
Lord Home, Governor .	1758
Colonel Tovey . .	1761
General Parslow . .	1761
General Cornwallis . .	1762
General Irwine . .	1766
General Cornwallis . .	1767
General Boyd, Lieut.-Gov.	1769
General Cornwallis . .	1769
General Eliott, Governor .	1777
Gen. O'Hara, Commanding	1787
Sir Robert Boyd, Governor	1791
Gen. Rainsford, Command.	1794
General O'Hara, Governor	1795
General Barnett, Command.	1802
Duke of Kent, Governor .	1802
Sir T. Trigge, Lieut.-Gov.	1803
Gen. Fox, Lieut.-Governor	1805
Gen. Drummond, Command.	1806
Sir Hew. Dalrymple, Com.	1806
Gen. Drummond, Command.	1808
Sir J. Cradock, Commanding	1809
Gen. Campbell, Lieut.-Gov.	1810
Gen. Smith, Commanding .	1814
Gen. Sir G. Don, Lieut.-Gov.	1814
Earl of Chatham, Governor	1820
Gen. Sir G. Don, Lieut.-Gov.	1825
Lt.-Gen. Sir Wm. Houston, Lieutenant-Governor .	1831
Major-General Sir Alexander Woodford, Lieut.-Gov. .	1835

It would be unjust to pass on to the next section without adverting to one of the governors of Gibraltar, whose character has been so little understood as to give rise to exceedingly unfair misrepresentations — I allude to his late Royal Highness the Duke of Kent, whose career through life I have attentively examined without finding in it one dark spot on which the eye of malevolence could dwell; and as it has ever been to me a most pleasing duty to rescue the memory of the good from unmerited censure, I hope that under present circumstances I may be excused for alluding here to some events relating to Gibraltar, and its last but one illustrious governor, in the hope that on a future occasion I shall be enabled to dwell more at length on events which are now matters of history, and therefore public property. The late Duke of Kent was born 1767, and sent to Germany by his Majesty's command in May, 1785, being then in his 18th year. In the Hanoverian service his Royal Highness commenced his military duties, serving first a serjeant, and successively

rising in order, that before he was permitted to command, he might learn to obey. In January, 1790, the Duke returned to England, and after passing 10 days at home, embarked at the short notice of 48 hours for Gibraltar, without the slightest allowance being made for his outfit, while in Hanover he was only allowed a guinea and a half a week pocket money.

In May, 1791, the Duke was ordered to Canada, without, even on this occasion, any allowance being made for his outfit; which was also the case when his Royal Highness was ordered, in December 1793, to the W. Indies, to join the army under the late Lord Grey, and where his gallant behaviour, in leading attacks against the enemy, was such as to require the repeated reproofs of the commander-in-chief for the daring courage displayed. At the close of the campaign in 1794, the Duke of Kent, pursuant to his Majesty's command, returned to N. America, where he was placed on the staff, and obliged to incur the expense of *a fourth* outfit, for which no reimbursement was ever made. His Royal Highness served at Halifax as major-general until 1796, and as lieutenant-general to 1798, when he was compelled to return to England in consequence of the injury received by his horse falling, when riding home after a garrison field day. In May, 1799, the Duke was promoted to the rank of general, and appointed commander-in-chief in N. America; but, unfortunately, the transport in which his equipment was embarked, was totally lost on the coast of N. America.

In the autumn of 1800, the precarious state of the Duke's health obliged his Royal Highness to obtain leave of absence, and he returned to England, and in March, 1802, was appointed to the government of Gibraltar. Here an opportunity presented itself for the liquidation of debts contracted, through no extravagance, but on account of the unfair manner in which his Royal Highness was treated, by being obliged to keep up establishments suited to his birth and rank, on expensive and arduous foreign stations; while I regret to add, from some erroneous feelings on *four* occasions when he was compelled to furnish a large outfit,—no allowance was made to

his Royal Highness, while the losses incurred by shipwreck, &c.* tended still more to extend his obligations. And here, I may add, that when his Royal Highness applied at the Treasury for the same trifling outfit (£2,000) granted on his appointment as Commander-in-chief for North America, he was informed that such was not usual, as the Government of Gibraltar was considered *so very good a thing* that its emoluments would soon clear him of any expenses of equipment,—indeed the income from the wine houses' licenses alone was, under General O'Hara (the Duke's predecessor), £7,000 per annum; but by reason of his Royal Highness' measures for the suppression of drunkenness it was reduced to £2,000 per annum. Nothing, therefore, could more strongly illustrate his Royal

* In proceeding from Canada to join the British army in the West Indies, His Royal Highness finding the St. Lawrence closed for the winter, crossed into the United States in the midst of most severe weather, and, in doing so, lost his whole equipage, valued at £2,000, in Lake Champlain, by the breaking in of the ice. In 1794, when again in North America, His Royal Highness ordered out from England an equipage to be sent to his station. It was embarked in H. M. packet *Antelope*, which sailed from Falmouth on 19th August, 1794, and was captured by a squadron of French privateers on the 19th September following; thus incurring another loss of £2,000. His Royal Highness was, of course, obliged to renew the order for another equipage, which being executed, was shipped on board H. M. packet *Tankerville*, that sailed from Falmouth on the 14th of December, 1794, and was captured on the passage to Halifax on the 10th of February following. This was another loss of £2,000. Another attempt was made by His Royal Highness to procure an equipage when nominated as Lieut.-General at Halifax, in 1796, and £4,000 of stores, &c. were shipped on board the *Recovery* transport, at Deptford, under the direction of Captain Raines; but this transport also fell into the hands of the enemy, as certified by Sir Rupert George. Thus *four* times was the equipage of His Royal Highness totally lost; but the *fifth* loss was the heaviest, and was ordered in 1799, when the Duke was appointed Commander-in-Chief of the British forces in North America. The transport ship *Francis*, wholly laden with His Royal Highness's baggage and equipage, was totally lost on Sable Island, by which £11,000 was added to the previous heavy obligations of the illustrious commander, amounting altogether to £21,000, for which the Treasury refused any compensation, excepting the loss on Lake Champlain, reimbursed 13 years after it occurred.

Highness' strictly moral and honourable character, than the fact that the earliest measures on assuming the government of Gibraltar, was the annihilation of the principal source of his income—which was derived from the import of wines and spirituous liquors, and the license for the sale thereof. Bred up a good soldier, and a strict disciplinarian, the Duke of Kent viewed with alarm and disgust the disorganized state of the British army in the garrison of Gibraltar, a portion of which had recently returned from the East, flushed with victory, accustomed to excesses, and abounding in money, from the lavish waste of which the highest officers had been replenishing their coffers, and were still interested in its continuance. No soldier who regards discipline as the most essential ingredient of an army, could have hesitated as to the remedy to be applied. His Royal Highness endeavoured to recal the officers and men to a sense of the duty they owed to themselves and their country;—he himself, who never exacted a duty from the meanest soldier which he would have hesitated to perform himself, set an example to the troops of punctuality, order, and sobriety of conduct; I have now before me a copy of the Duke's garrison orders, printed at Gibraltar in 1803, in every line of which I find proofs of a zealous desire to restore the discipline of the soldiers, and by even forcing an attention to what might otherwise be considered minutiæ, endeavouring to remove that laziness of habit and carelessness of manner so detrimental to the happiness and efficiency of the soldier; in these laudable efforts, I regret to say, his Royal Highness was far from being seconded by those whose immediate duty it was to have promptly and cordially aided his views,—on this point I am, however, now unwilling to dwell, because the censure due refers also to noble personages in England, who jealous of the Duke of Kent's popularity at home, saw with pleasure any step which might possibly tend to lower him in public estimation. An occasion was not long wanting for designing men to work on the minds of the soldiery, who had before them the remembrance of two former mutinies in the garrison, when the mal-

contents escaped unpunished; and the issuing of the following orders respecting the due regulation of the canteens and wine shops (which instantly of course affected the income of his Royal Highness, who profited by the quantity consumed, and the number of canteens established), became the exciting cause of a real or pretended mutiny, in which the Duke of Kent, unsupported by his officers and against his own courageous and high-minded principles, was obliged to return to England.

STANDING REGULATIONS FOR REGIMENTAL CANTEENS AT GIBRALTAR.—(*Order Book*, 1803, *printed at the Garrison Library.*)

1. The canteen is invariably to be held by a sergeant of respectability, and one who will keep up and enforce his authority *as such;* he is to be allowed the assistance of one careful man. It is not to be open, on any day, until one hour after guard mounting; it is not to remain open later than the drummer's call beats for tattoo, viz. half an hour before second evening gun-fire; it is to be shut whenever the regiment is on parade, or out in the field, and not to open on Sundays until after Divine Service in the Convent Chapel is over.

2. No spirituous liquor, whether mixed or unmixed, of any sort or kind, is to be sold upon any pretence whatsoever; the sale, therefore, of liquor is limited to wine, malt-liquor, cyder, and beer.

3. No cards, dice, or gambling of any description, are to be allowed in it.

4. No liquor whatsoever is to be sold for any other purpose than that of being drunk in the canteen; as none is on any pretence to be carried out of it, except for the use of the families of outlayers, and then the quantity sold to any one person is not to exceed one pint, nor is any to be delivered to children under the age of 15 years.

5. No liquor whatsoever is to be sold on trust; and therefore, if any non-commissioned officer or soldier, be suffered to depart without paying for what he has been supplied with be-

fore he leaves the canteen, he is cleared of all obligation to pay afterwards.

6. No non-commissioned officer or soldier is to be permitted to leave in pledge any part of his dress, necessaries or appointments, for liquor, nor is any thing to be received but money; therefore, if any one calls for more than he can pay for on the spot, he is immediately to be sent prisoner to the regimental guard-house, charged with the crime of disobedience of orders, for the purpose of being brought to a court-martial, and punished for the same.

7. No non-commissioned officers or soldiers of any other corps but that to which the canteen belongs, nor any stranger of any description, except being passed in by a commissioned officer, the sergeant-major, or quarter-master sergeant, is to be admitted into the canteen without producing permission in writing from the commanding officer of the corps; nor are any persons to be supplied with liquor from it, but the non-commissioned officers, &c. belonging to the regiment.

8. No non-commissioned officer or soldier who has the least appearance of intoxication, is to be permitted to enter the canteen; such as shew a disposition to drunkenness, or rioting are immediately to be sent to their barracks, and if disobedient to the orders of the non-commissioned officer holding the canteen, when directed to go there, are to be sent prisoners to the guard-house with a crime against them for refusing to obey his orders.

9. The non-commissioned officer having charge of the canteen, is to be obeyed by the other non-commissioned officers and soldiers, as next in rank to the quarter-master sergeant, in every thing relating to the carrying on the business of the canteen. He and his assistant have authority to call upon the barrack guard for assistance, whenever good order and regularity are are in danger of being disturbed; but, on no other occasion, except when called upon for this purpose, are non-commissioned officers or soldiers, on duty, to enter the canteen.

10. The captain of the day and orderly officer are each of them frequently to visit the canteen, and if they discover any

irregularity or breach of these regulations, during the time they are on duty, they are to report the same to the commanding officer in writing.

11. The established price of wine and malt liquor is to be at the following rate, and never to be altered without an order from the commanding officer, viz. Malaga, two reals per quart; black wine, one real and a half per quart; porter, one real and a half per bottle; and beer one real per quart.

The wine to be sold in the same state as it is purchased from the merchant, and any attempt to adulterate it, is, on detection, to be punished in the most exemplary manner.

As before observed, the rigid enforcement of the foregoing orders so creditable to the head and heart of the Duke of Kent, ended in a mutiny of the disorganised troops, and the Duke of Kent returned to England, where his Royal Highness in vain sought redress from the existing authorities, who ought to have punished the *second in command* in Gibraltar; Captain Conran, referring subsequently to this affair, says, in a letter to the Duke of Kent,—

"It is a subject I never can reflect on but with the most heartfelt concern, as even at this distant period it appears to make such impressions on your Royal Highness' mind. Every loyal and well affected man of that garrison must think and feel as I do, and must regret that *the state of the garrison* PRIOR to your Royal Highness' coming to the command of it, and indeed the *weak*, I may add, *worse than no support that your Royal Highness received from the* SECOND IN COMMAND never was laid before the public."

The efforts of the late Duke of Kent to obtain an investigation into his conduct as Governor of Gibraltar, were as unceasing as they were honourable to his character and open minded integrity; and I cannot in justice to his Royal Highness' lamented memory, refuse myself the gratification of annexing the following letters which passed between the Dukes of Kent and York, and Lord Castlereagh, in which, with a pertinacity and manliness betokening a thorough Englishman,

his Royal Highness earnestly and repeatedly sought that which is the birth-right of the meanest Briton—not to be condemned unheard—let the reader judge how the triumphant appeal of innocence and integrity was met.

(COPY.)

'*Kensington Palace, 23rd April*, 1808.

'My Lord,—Being unwilling to occasion any trouble to the members of His Majesty's Government during the time their close attendance to their duty in parliament, left them little leisure to devote otherwise than to the important concerns of the country in their respective departments; I have delayed until the moment of the recess to address your Lordship upon a subject of the most material consequence to myself, in as much as it seriously affects my character both as an officer and as a man.

The circumstance I allude to will be found by your Lordship on referring to the annexed enclosure, marked A, the same being the copy of a letter from the Commander in Chief to me of the 6th of February last; in the second paragraph of which he is pleased to make use of the following expressions:—'It is at all times matter of great regret to me to recal to your recollection the unfortunate events which led to your return from that fortress (Gibraltar), which have *already*, and *must ever preclude* the confidential servants of the King, from advising His Majesty to permit you to resume your situation there.'

Before I proceed farther, I conceive it necessary to declare to your Lordship that until I received the above communication, which, coming from the quarter it does, I cannot but consider as official; I never entertained the most distant idea of His Majesty's confidential servants having come to a decision respecting me of the nature therein signified, or I should, the moment I had been apprised thereof, have felt it a duty I owed myself to request a communication of the grounds upon which such a resolution was adopted, and which carries with it a sentence of condemnation upon my

conduct when in the command of the fortress of Gibraltar, which I am conscious I do not merit. The object therefore of my present address to your Lordship is to demand *as a matter of justice*, which I consider myself as having a right to claim of you, as Secretary of State for that department, to which the concerns of Gibraltar more particularly belong, that I may be made acquainted with these statements, which having been laid before His Majesty's Government have induced the members of it to form that determination relative to me, which is expressed in the communication of the Commander in Chief, in order that I may have an opportunity of exculpating my character and conduct of whatever charges these may contain to my prejudice, and without which I cannot conceive that such an arbitrary resolution could have been formed. By reference to the annexed copy of an official communication B, that occasioned my return to England in 1803, and which was transmitted to me by the Commander in Chief, your Lordship will perceive that it was specifically expressed by Lord Pelham, 'as His Majesty's pleasure that I should return to England immediately upon the consideration that it might be desirable that the different departments of His government at home should have the advantage of some personal communication with me upon the recent events at Gibraltar.' To obtain this personal communication became the object of my most anxious wishes from the moment of my arrival in England; and I am now in possession of documents which will prove that if my application to that effect was not complied with, it did not arise from any want of exertion on my part to obtain an interview with the different departments of His Majesty's Government, upon a subject naturally so interesting to my feelings, and so very important to my character. When, therefore, I was informed through the channel of the Commander in Chief by the Secretary of State at the head of the department to which Gibraltar then belonged, in his letter of the 28th June, 1803, of which the enclosed C is a copy; that there was nothing in his department upon which he had occasion to trouble me with any enquiries relative to

the events alluded to, although he had himself expressly signified that it was for the purpose of enabling the members of His Majesty's Government to hold communication with me upon the events that had occurred at Gibraltar, that I had been requested to come over, and when in his letter of the 15th July, 1803, of which the enclosure D is a copy, the Commander in Chief was pleased to state that he was not aware that any department of His Majesty's civil government could officially communicate with me upon the subject of Gibraltar, except the Secretary of State for the Home Department, I trust it will not be thought presumption in me if I drew the inference that the members who then composed His Majesty's Government attached no blame to my conduct, or if I considered my not being called upon then to resume my command, as having no connection with a censure upon my conduct, but wholly to be ascribed to other causes, to which, from motives of delicacy, I forbear alluding; as such I remained perfectly quiet until the moment when I felt that my character required I should make an effort to return to my duty. That effort your Lordship will perceive has produced an unequivocal declaration of the sentiments of His Majesty's confidential servants towards me, which I can only suppose to have been adopted in consequence of my conduct having been grossly mistated to them. Your Lordship will therefore not be surprised at my being anxious to repel these misrepresentations, and of my claiming on these grounds the rights of an Englishman to be made acquainted, as I have before observed, with the nature and extent of the accusation against me, and also of the names of those who dare accuse me; and that the matter may be fully investigated in whatever manner His Majesty's ministers may choose to point out, for it cannot be otherwise than gratifying to me to meet the verdict of any set of men whose opinions on my conduct shall be formed on the solemn evidence and information given by those who witnessed my zeal for the good of His Majesty's service during the period I resided and commanded in my government. If, however, this right shall be refused me, which I trust in God

it may not, I then claim that the assertion already quoted, as made by the Commander in Chief, may be retracted in terms as strong and explicit as those in which it is worded.

The Right Honourable Lord Castlereagh.

I remain, &c. &c.
(Signed) EDWARD.

ALLUDED TO IN THE FOREGOING.

(Copy.) A.

'*Horse Guards, February 6th*, 1808.

'Dear Edward,—I take the earliest opportunity to acknowledge the receipt of your letter of this morning, and am fully sensible of your candour in communicating to me the copy of a letter which you have thought yourself bound to address to His Majesty, requesting leave to return, under the present circumstances, to Gibraltar.

'It is at all times a matter of great regret to me to recall to your recollection the unfortunate events which led to your return from that fortress, and which have already, and must ever preclude the confidential servants of the King from advising His Majesty to permit you to resume your situation there.

I had hoped, from the number of ineffectual applications which you have at different times made upon this unlucky subject, that you would have been prevented from renewing them; and I can only repeat how much I have lamented that no arrangement could be made to relieve you from the embarassment which you must undoubtedly always labour under, so long as you retain the government of Gibraltar.

'I am, &c. &c.

(Signed) 'FREDERICK.'

ALLUDED TO IN THE FIRST LETTER.

(Copy.) D.

'*Horse Guards, July 15th*, 1803.

'Sir,—I was yesterday favoured with your Royal Highness's letter of the 13th inst., from which I am to understand that, in consequence of Lord Pelham's letter, of which a copy was sent to your Royal Highness in mine of the 29th ult., you are no longer desirous of a personal meeting with his Lordship; but wish that the other departments of His Majesty's Government which may be willing to communicate with you should be pointed out to you. Upon this I can only observe, that I am not myself aware that any department of His Majesty's Civil Government can officially communicate with your Royal Highness upon the subject of Gibraltar, except the Secretary of State for the Home Department; but, should

'your Royal Highness think otherwise, I can only repeat that I cannot have 'any objection to your addressing yourself personally to them.

'I am, &c. &c.

(Signed) 'FREDERICK, Commander-in-Chief.'

(COPY.)

'*St. James's Square, 3rd May,* 1808.

'Sir,—I have to acknowledge the receipt of your Royal Highness's letter of the 23rd ult., and have to entreat your Royal Highness's forgiveness for the unavoidable delay which has taken place in replying thereto. Upon the best consideration I have been enabled to give the communication with which your Royal Highness has been pleased to honour me, I do not feel myself enabled to enter into any explanation on the subject therein referred to, without its being previously submitted to the consideration of His Majesty's confidential servants; and, as His Majesty's commands have not been signified to authorize such a reference, I humbly conceive the subject cannot, under such circumstances, be brought regularly under their consideration.

I am, Sir, with the utmost respect and deference,

'Your Royal Highness's

'Most humble and obedient Servant,

(Signed) 'CASTLEREAGH.

'His Royal Highness
the Duke of Kent.'

(COPY.)

'*Kensington Palace, 4th May,* 1808.

'My Lord,—Having at length, last evening, been favoured with your Lordship's acknowledgement of my letter of the 23d ult., and being unwilling to consider it in the light of a subterfuge or evasion, to get rid of that explanation which I feel I have a right to demand of his Majesty's confidential servants, supposing that resolution regarding me which is asserted in the Commander-in-Chief's letter of the 6th Feb. last, to have

been adopted by them, (of which, as I have before observed, considering the official situation of the person by whom the fact is stated, I can entertain no doubt), I have now to request that your Lordship will inform me whether I am to understand from your letter to me, that my communication to you has been laid before the King, and that his Majesty has not been pleased to signify his commands thereupon, or whether it is that your Lordship has not as yet submitted it to his Majesty's gracious consideration; for I feel it essential for my honour and character, not to let the matter rest in its present stage, and it is necessary that I should receive an explicit answer to this question from your Lordship before I decide which is the next step it may be necessary for me to take in the business.

I remain, &c.

(Signed) EDWARD.

The Right Honourable
Lord Castlereagh.

(COPY.)

'*Downing Street, 5th May*, 1808.

'Sir,—I have to acknowledge the receipt of your Royal Highness's letter of yesterday's date, desiring to be informed whether your Royal Highness's letter of the 23rd ult. has been laid before His Majesty. I have to acquaint your Royal Highness, in reply thereto, that I have not submitted that letter to His Majesty, not having understood your Royal Highness to have expressed any wish that it should be submitted, and that I shall not feel it my duty to do so, unless I receive your Royal Highness's commands to that effect.

'I am, Sir,

'Your Royal Highness's

'Most obedient and humble Servant,

(Signed) 'CASTLEREAGH.

'His Royal Highness
the Duke of Kent.'

(COPY.)

Kensington Palace, 12th May, 1808.

'My Lord,—I have to acknowledge your Lordship's letter of the 5th instant, to which I should certainly have felt it incumbent upon me to have replied earlier, had I not been desirous to weigh maturely the situation in which your Lordship's letter of the 3rd has placed me, (and which has not been altered by your last communication) before I came to any determination upon it. Having therefore now taken the necessary time to form my resolution as to the steps I ought to take thereupon, I have to observe to your Lordship that when first I addressed you on the 23d ultimo, I certainly did not conceive that it would be requisite to trouble His Majesty to interfere, in order that I might obtain from his confidential servants *that,* which is the birthright of every Englishman, I mean the opportunity of clearing myself of that unfavourable representation of my conduct while late in the command of the fortress of Gibraltar, which I conclude must have reached them, since they have felt themselves warranted in taking a step which conveys the severest possible censure upon my conduct. But since it is your Lordship's opinion that I cannot be made acquainted with those representations which have led to the adoption of the resolution alluded to, without His Majesty's command being signified to that effect, I feel too much confidence in the King's justice and goodness, to entertain a moment's hesitation as to the point of having my letter of the 23d ultimo, laid before him, your Lordship will therefore understand, that it is my wish it should be submitted to him, accompanied by a humble request on my part, that he would sanction my being informed of the grounds upon which his ministers had come to the resolution alluded to by the Duke of York in his letter of the 6th February, in order that if this has arisen, as it is natural for me to imagine, from what I consider a mistatement of my conduct, I may have the opportunity given me of proving, that it is wholly unfounded. But at the same time that this communication is made to the King, I am sure your Lordship will feel that it is but just and

fair it should be fully explained to him, that his being troubled with an application of this nature has arisen solely from your Lordship's declaration, that you conceived the subject could not be brought regularly under the deliberation of His Majesty's confidential servants, until His Majesty's commands had been signified to authorize such a reference.

(Signed) 'EDWARD.'

'The Right Honourable Lord Castlereagh.

(COPY.)

'Lord Castlereagh has the honour to acquaint His Royal Highness the Duke of Kent, that in obedience to His Royal Highness's commands, his letter of the 23d ultimo, together with the subsequent correspondence has been laid before His Majesty.

'*St. James's Square, 13th May*, 1808.'

(*Received on the Evening of the 14th.*)

(COPY.)

'The Duke of Kent has to acknowledge the receipt of Lord Castlereagh's note, dated the 13th instant, (but which only reached him on the evening of the 14th) and to thank him for the information it contains of his letter of the 23d ultimo, to His Lordship, together with the subsequent correspondence that has passed between them, having been laid before the King; at the same time the Duke has to express his expectation that Lord Castlereagh will favour him with the earliest communication of whatever commands His Majesty may be graciously pleased to signify thereupon.'

'*Kensington Palace, 15th May*, 1808.'

'The Right Honourable Lord Castlereagh.

(COPY.)

St. James's Square, 16th May, 1808.

'Sir,—Having laid before the King in compliance with

your Royal Highness's desire, your letter of the 23d ultimo, together with the subsequent correspondence, I am to acquaint your Royal Highness, that His Majesty referring to the answer which he was pleased to return to your Royal Highness, on the 9th February last, does not think it necessary to authorize his ministers to take into their consideration your Royal Highness's present application.'

'I am, Sir, with the utmost deference and respect,

'Your Royal Highness's

'Most humble and obedient Servant.

(Signed) 'CASTLEREAGH.'

For His Royal Highness,
the Duke of Kent.

(COPY.)

Kensington Palace, 17th May, 1808.

'My Lord,—I have to acknowledge the receipt of your Lordship's letter of yesterday communicating His Majesty's commands respecting the application I made to your Lordship on the 23d ultimo; to which I am fully sensible it is my duty in all humility to submit, at the same time, I cannot help expressing to your Lordship my conviction, that had the King been made *fully* acquainted with the nature and extent of it, and that it had *no reference whatever* to His Majesty's decision of the 9th February, upon the request I made to him in my letter of the 6th of the same month, (of which I never presumed to solicit a reconsideration on his part) but that it was confined wholly to the resolution adopted by his *confidential servants*, relative to myself, (in which the King could not have had the slightest participation) which I consider founded on injustice, as it must have been entered into upon a representation of facts to my prejudice, while I had not the opportunity afforded me of explaining my conduct as connected with the event that has occasioned that determination.—He could not with his well-known upright mind have withheld from me that justice which is extended to the meanest of his

subjects, *the right to defend my character against misrepresentation.*

Under this impression, which nothing can remove from my mind, I have no alternative left, but to avail myself of the first opportunity that offers, to do justice to my feelings, and to endeavour to remove from my character that unjust stigma, which I conceive attached to it from that resolution of His Majesty's ministers, which was communicated to me by the Commander-in-chief in his letter of the 6th February last, and which has given rise to the present correspondence.'

I remain, &c. &c.

(Signed) 'EDWARD.'

The Right Honourable
Lord Castlereagh.

It is impossible to peruse the preceding documents without being struck with the ingenuous tone in which an injured and honourable man sought to remove a stigma which had foully been attached to his character; nor can feelings, stronger than mere regret, be prevented arising on witnessing the treatment to which his Royal Highness was so unworthily subjected; I close, therefore, this portion of my subject with observing, that the Duke of Kent finding all hopes of redress for the injustice done to him futile, instead of indulging in chagrin or moody discontent, bowed in humble resignation to the event, shewing that though he was born to command, he also knew how to obey: his active and benevolent mind seeing that a military career was thus early closed against him, directed its attention to fulfilling the duties of civil life; in Parliament his votes and his speeches were uniformly in favour of the great and ennobling principles which seated the family of Brunswick on the Throne of England; 'CIVIL AND RELIGIOUS LIBERTY;' and out of Parliament his purse, his time, his talents, (which were of a fine order) and his winning manners were devoted to the poor; with *fifty-three public charities* his Royal Highness was intimately associated—as chairman, patron, or president,—and on each and every

public or private occasion he was to be found zealously ministering to the wants and afflictions of his distressed fellow subjects. His truly Christian career was cut short in the prime of life, and just when he was beginning to taste the inexpressible pleasures of domestic happiness, which no man was more capable of appreciating, and none more richly deserving of;—every Briton—every one who sympathises for the distresses of the poor and desolate—and who rejoices in the extension of national freedom and individual happiness, will have embalmed in his memory the remembrance of a Prince whose every feeling vibrated for the honour, and the glory, and the welfare of his country.

Before closing this brief account of one of the most remarkable possessions under the Sovereignty of the British Crown, I am induced to give the following account of the project for restoring Gibraltar to Spain by our Sovereign George I.* The accession of Philip the Fifth of Spain, to the Quadruple Alliance of 1718, being an object which the Courts of Great Britain and France had much at heart; the Regent of France undertook, with the view of propitiating Philip, to prevail upon George I. to listen to a proposition for restoring Gibraltar to Spain; a proposition which King George did not reject, but which he declined to entertain without the concurrence of his Parliament. Upon this point, private assurances of a more explicit nature were made; and there is reason for believing that the Regent of France pledged his word to Philip, that Gibraltar should be restored to him.

When Philip, however, had acceded (1720) to the Quadruple Alliance, he insisted in vain that he had only done so upon condition that Gibraltar should be restored to him; he had formerly declared to the Regent that such was the consideration (sine quâ non), upon which he had entered into the views of the allies. Finding that his remonstrances were not

* I received this important document from the Colonial Office after the preceding pages had been printed, otherwise it would have appeared in chronological order.

listened to, he refused to fulfil various obligations which he had contracted towards Great Britain. He declined especially to issue his license for authorizing the trade of the South Sea Company with South America.

For the purpose of overcoming these difficulties, King George addressed a letter to Philip on the 21st of June, 1721, in which it was stated;

'Puisque par la confiance que Votre Majesté me temoigne je puis regarder les traités qui ont été en question entre nous comme rétablis et qu'en conformité les pièces necessaires au commerce de mes sujets auront été extradées, je ne balance plus à assurer Votre Majesté de ma promptitude à la satisfaire par rapport à sa demande touchant la restitution de Gibraltar, lui promettant de me servir des premières occasions pour regler cet article, du consentement de mon Parlement.'

That letter of King George led to a series of earnest representations from Philip, which lasted until the year 1725, when the British Minister at Madrid was cautioned 'not to go on any further in proposals or discourse of equivalents or expedients for the delivery of Gibraltar. No minister would have the boldness to advise such a kind of equivalent. The King had always told His Catholick Majesty that he could do nothing as to Gibraltar, without the concurrence of Parliament. It would not be alienated without the consent of Parliament. The behaviour of the Spanish Court has been such that it is impossible they themselves can think His Majesty any longer under the least obligation of laying this demand before Parliament.' The fact is, that George I. would have given up Gibraltar to the Spaniards but for the strong expression of public feeling in opposition to the measure.

PHYSICAL ASPECT AND GEOGRAPHY.—Gibraltar mountain or promontory (forming with that of Ceuta upon the opposite coast of Barbary, the narrow channel which connects the Atlantic Ocean with the Mediterranean) is of an oblong form in a direction from N. to S. $2\frac{3}{4}$ miles, a breadth no where exceeding three-quarters of a mile, and with a circumference of about seven miles. The greatest length of the peninsula, from

Forbes's barrier to the flag staff of Europa, is 4,700 yards; the breadth, from the New Mole to the sea, at the back of the Rock, 1,600 yards; from Europa Point, in the S. of Gibraltar to Cabrita Point, on the Spanish side, (which two points form the mouth of the bay) 10,945 yards. The area of Gibraltar and the adjacent neutral is thus stated:—Neutral ground, (including gardens, meadow and arable ground), 106 acres; North Glacis, $3\frac{1}{2}$ acres; Convent grounds, $2\frac{1}{4}$; South Glacis, 7; Alamida and grounds to S. barracks, $33\frac{3}{4}$; back of S. barracks to upper boundary of Commissioners' garden, 8; gardens behind the naval officers's quarters, as high as cultivation extends, $12\frac{3}{4}$; N. ditch, about $\frac{1}{4}$; S. do. $\frac{1}{4}$; farms up the hill, 10; Government grounds below Europa flats, $3\frac{1}{4}$; parterres and gardens attached to houses within the town of Gibraltar, 10. Total 197 acres. The summit is a sharp craggy ridge, running from N. to S., the greatest elevation being to the southward, where Sugar Loaf Point rises to 1,439 feet above the sea level; Rock Mortar, the highest point to the northward, is 1,350 feet, and Signal House, the central point between the two, has an elevation of 1,276 feet.

The promontory is unequally divided by the above mentioned ridge, the side next to the Mediterranean being narrower and much steeper than that next the bay, on which stands the town and fortifications. The *W.* side of the mountain is a series of rugged slopes, interspersed with abrupt precipices; the *E.* mostly consists of a range of precipices, but a bank of sand, rising from the Mediterranean in a rapid acclivity, covers one-third of its perpendicular height; the *southern* extremity of the promontory falls in a rapid slope from the Sugar Loaf summit into a rocky flat called Windmill Hill, forming half an oval, and bounded by a range of precipices, at the southern base of which a second rocky flat takes place similar in form and extent to Windmill Hill, and also like it surrounded by a precipice, the extreme southern termination of which is washed by the sea and called Europa Point. The *northern* point of Gibraltar is connected with the main land and is perfectly perpendicular, except towards the

N.W. where, what are called the Lines intervene, and a narrow passage of flat ground that leads to the low, flat, sandy isthmus or neutral ground, the greatest height of which, above the level of the sea, does not exceed 10 feet; its breadth near Gibraltar, 950 yards; about midway to the garrison, 1,200 yards; and near the Spanish Lines, (which are 1,650 yards from the outworks of Gibraltar) 1,750 yards.* The shape of this isthmus, which has Gibraltar Bay on the W. and the Mediterranean Sea on the E., is irregular, the sand extending considerably beyond the Spanish Lines, both on the Mediterranean and Bay sides, so that its circumference may be estimated at 8 to 10 miles.

Gibraltar Bay, situate on the W. side of the mountain, is nearly 8½ miles long, and in breadth upwards of 5; the circumference being between 30 to 40 miles. At some points the

* Colonel James gives the following measurements and bearings of several points:—Length of the peninsula from Forbes' battery to the flag staff at Europa, 4,700 yards; breadth from the new mole to the sea at the back of the rock, 1,600; distance from Forbes to the Spanish lines, 1,650; the fort W. of the lines, 1,800; the head of the causeway to the demolished tower, 570; round tower, 870; the Spanish battery, intended to demolish the old mole, to the said work, 900; the mortar battery near the Levant shore to Queen's battery at Willis's, 535; the nearest battery of the Spaniards to the grand battery, 700; the head of the Spanish approaches to the head of the foundation, 150; the Sergeant's Guard, bay-side, to the first garden, 140; breadth of the isthmus near the Spanish lines, 1,750; at the Spanish advanced huts, 1,200; near Gibraltar hill, 950; the old mole head to Europa flag staff, S. 05° 57′ W., 4,649; the new mole head to Europa flag-staff, S. 09° 31′ E., 2,231; the old mole head to new mole head, S. 19° 23′ W., 2,561.

Distances of Places across the Bay.

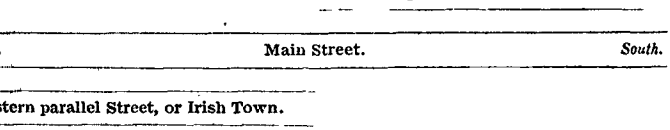
Cabrita batteries and flag-staff	Old mole head, W.	10,949 yards.
	Europa flag-staff,	8,802 ditto.
Tower on Cabrita point	Old mole head, W.	
	Europa flag-staff,	3,785 ditto.
Tower S. of Old Gibraltar, and N. of Sandy Bay	Old mole head,	9,246 ditto.
	Europa flag staff, W.	8,725 ditto.
Middle of the island of Algeziras	Old mole head, W.	8,275 ditto.
	Europa flag staff, W.	8,854 ditto.
The tower in the country	Old mole head, W.	10 531 ditto.
	Europa flag staff, W.	12,284 ditto.

beach is rocky especially in front of the town; at others it is sandy as at Rosia in the S. and Catalan Bay at the back of the Rock towards its N. extremity; in spring tides the water rises in the bay about four feet washing the base of the fortifications.

The Bay is bordered on the Spanish side by ranges of high land, which form a semicircular sweep around it at the distance of three or four miles: hills of moderate height begin to present themselves above the sandy isthmus, and extend into the interior in groups of various elevations, till, at the distance of 12 leagues to the eastward, the ancient city of Ronda presents itself, and forms the centre of an extensive sierra or chain of mountains, which bears its name: a part of this sierra extends towards Malaga, and another towards Seville. The Straits of Gibraltar extend for about 12 leagues from Cape Spartel to Ceuta Point on the African Coast, and from Cape Trafalgar to Europa Point on the Coast of Spain. At the western or Atlantic entrance they are about eight leagues broad; they diminish considerably towards the middle and again expand between Gibraltar and Ceuta where they are about five leagues wide. In the narrowest part of the Gut, between Tarifa and Alcanzar Point, which is about nine miles broad, the depth varies from 160 to 500 fathoms; but between Gibraltar and Ceuta Capt. Smith sounded to the extraordinary depth of 950 fathoms (5,700 feet) where he found a gravelly bottom, with fragments of broken shells. Through these straits the current on the *surface* of the ocean sets constantly from the Atlantic into the Mediterranean, beneath the surface there is doubtless an under current *from* the Mediterranean into the Atlantic: this idea is confirmed from the circumstance of a Dutch merchant ship being sunk by one broadside of a French privater in the middle of the Gut (as the straits are termed) between Tarifa and Tangier, and a few days after, the sunken ship, with her cargo of brandy and oil, was cast ashore near to Tangier, 12 miles to the westward of the place where she went down; those who deny the existence of this counter current, and yet find a difficulty in

accounting for what becomes of the vast body of water flowing constantly through the straits at a rate of from three to six miles an hour, and which no solar evaporation could carry off, suppose there may be subterranean communications between the Mediterranean and Black Sea, though the latter has a current through the Dardanelles into the former.

GIBRALTAR TOWN is built on the N. W. face of the promontory, extending from the Landport to the Southport Gate, the main street leading directly between the two gates, being about three-fourths of a mile in length. An idea of the three principal streets may be formed from the following diagram.



These streets, and those which communicate with them, are as level as the generality of those in English towns, though the town would appear to be built on the precipitous slope of a hill. In the principal streets the houses are generally three to four stories high, built after the English model; in some parts the Spanish, or probably Moorish, construction prevails, there being a central court-yard, into which the rooms of the dwelling open; the roofs however are not flat or terraced as in Malta. The communication between the town and the Isthmus is by a long narrow causeway, defended by a curtain with two bastions; a dry ditch, covered way, and glacis well mined. These, together with the causeway, are completely flanked by the King's, Queen's, and Prince's lines, works cut in the rock with immense labour, and scarped so as to be almost inaccessible. Above these lines are the batteries at Willis's, still higher than which are other batteries at different heights, until the very summit is crowned with mortars and cannon, entirely commanding the isthmus below. The old mole to the W. of the grand battery forms also a very formidable flank, and with the lines, a cross fire on the

causeway and neutral ground. Indeed the grand battery and the old mole exhibit such a formidable appearance from the causeway as to be termed by the Spaniards '*the mouth of fire.*'

Along the sea line Gibraltar town is equally well protected, and nature has lent her aid by means of a shoal of sharp rocks, extending along the front of the fortifications far into the bay, and thus preventing ships of very large burthen from approaching close to the walls. At the new mole there is depth of water sufficient for a ship of the line to lie alongside of the wharf and heave down; the anchorage is strongly protected; from New Mole fort to Rosia bay the works are strong, and act as flanks to each other; they are close along the beach, which is low, and are protected by a battery in the rear. To particularize the other defences down to Europa point and around is neither necessary nor politic.

In 1783 the total number of guns serviceable in the garrison consisted of 663 pieces of artillery, as follows:—

Cannon.—Thirty-two pounders, 77; 24 and 26 do., 149; 18 do., 113; 12 do., 74; 9 do., 16; 6 do., 31; 4 and 3 do., 61. Total, 521.

Mortars.—Thirteen inch, 29; 10 do., 3; 8 do. 13; 5 and 4 do., 65. Total, 110.

Howitzers.—Ten inch, 19; 8 do., 9; 5½ do, 4. Total, 32. Grand Total, 663.

There are now more than 1,000 guns mounted.

With regard to the town of Gibraltar, though much improved of late years, it is still confined, ill ventilated, and over crowded with inhabitants; the numbers of which have however been diminished by the erection of villages at Catalan bay and on the neutral ground. As may be expected, in a town subject to bombardment, the public edifices are neither numerous nor beautiful; the governor resides in a building which was formerly a Franciscan convent, and has also a delightful cottage at Europa Point; there is an English and Spanish church, and an exchange, session house, library, &c. The barracks are on an extensive and substantial scale, consisting of casements and detached buildings, the latter prin-

cipally occupied by married people. The casements are mostly two stories, built of stone, and generally bomb proof. The hospitals are on a superior scale, particularly the Naval one, which is unsurpassed in any part of the globe; it is situate on an open level space below Buena Vista, 130 feet above the level of the sea; it is capable of accommodating 500 patients within the walls, and 500 more might have marquees on the area or terrace in front. The remains of an old Moorish castle still exist, situate on the N. W. side of the hill; it is an extensive enclosure, of about 11 acres, within which are several houses occupied by officers and soldiers; the walls and remains still extant denote the energy and grandeur of the Saracenic invaders of Spain.

The whole surface of Gibraltar abounds in caves, fissures, and pot-like holes. The most celebrated cave is that called St. George's by the Spaniards, and St. Michael's by the English. It lies to the S. of Charles V's. wall, at a point nearly overhanging the old burial ground in the red sands, and about 1,100 feet above the level of the sea. According to tradition it formerly extended 4 or 500 yards in a southerly direction, and at present it can be explored without difficulty 100 or 150 yards; the roof is covered with various stalactitical productions. In the interior is a large collection of water, which although continually receiving supplies by distillation from the roof never overflows.

The promontory is well supplied with water, and the aqueduct originally planned by the Moors, is a very noble work. The present structure was commenced in 1571, after the plan of a Spanish Jesuit, and finished in 1694: the aqueduct begins in the S. and terminates in the centre of the town; the water with which it is supplied filters through the red sand, running through 'weep holes,' made of brick, into a reservoir, from whence, after rising to a heighth of 18 inches, it is conveyed in earthen pipes to various parts of the town. The aqueduct is chiefly fed by the autumn and winter rains, and also supplied by infiltration from the body of the mountain.

There are numerous tanks and wells for the supply of the garrison; those tanks, for the use of the navy, four in number, in the immediate neighbourhood of Rosia Bay, being the most extensive, as they are capable of containing 1,317,120 gallons of water; there are seven other public tanks, capable of containing 235,580 gallons: thus, *one million and a half* of gallons may be always kept in supply. The water flows into the tanks from the roofs of houses, &c. without any other purification being resorted to but throwing in a few live eels, which eat up the animalculæ, and are themselves eaten in turn when they get fat. Among the public tanks two are objects of antiquarian curiosity; one at Europa Flats, called the Nun's Well, capable of containing 100,000 gallons, is supposed to have been a Moorish bath; the other is the old Moorish Castle, and its extent does not seem to have been well ascertained, as tanks and arched passages have been recently found when sinking the foundation of officers' quarters close by the parapet in 1825. There are upwards of 100 private tanks in the garrison, capable of containing 25,000 butts of water; and from 20 to 30 wells, with a depth of 3 to 26 feet. In fact, the internal parts of the promontory abound with water; and on the neutral ground are numerous wells, which furnish some thousand gallons of water daily to the gardens,—24,000 gallons being drawn in 24 hours from a sand apparently as arid as the deserts of Arabia; the wells are formed by sinking a cask in the sand, and letting in one or two more as may be thought necessary; the supply continues throughout the driest summer, and the close vicinity of the sea does not seem to influence the quality of the water.

I am indebted to the same gentleman to whose information I have already acknowledged my obligations for the following description of a cavern explored by him and a party of adventurous brother officers,—the recital is interesting, as it tends to explain the structure of the promontory:—

'In 1789 the attention of the garrison was much attracted to an extraordinary cavern, which was accidentally discovered at the back of the rock by the military artificers employed in

scarping the accessible places. The opening of this cave was in the face of the perpendicular rock—about 150 or 160 feet above its footing on the eastern side, almost under the Signal House. In enlarging the works of the garrison chasms and caves of considerable size were constantly thrown open in various parts of the rock, proving, with our knowledge of St. George's Cave, another at Poca Roca, above the town, and others in many parts of the mountain, that the promontory of Gibraltar must abound with hollows of this description. One had been discovered a short time before on the lines above Land Port, in which some very curious petrified bones were found, but none of the late discoveries appeared to be of the same extent as the cavern above mentioned.

'A party of officers having provided themselves with the necessary ropes, and being attended by guides, each bearing a candle, and having tinder boxes distributed among them, proceeded by the Devil's Tower, Catalan Bay, and up the sloping bank of sand behind the rock to the foot of the precipice, which they were required to ascend before they could enter the mouth of the cavern. This was soon found to be an enterprise of no small danger to persons unaccustomed to such undertakings. With great difficulty the party, assisted by their attendants, clambered up the face of the rock to the height of from 150 to 160 feet. The cavern consisted of several chambers, or divisions, connected by narrow crevices or funnels, some of which were so small and tortuous as to make the passage rather difficult, obliging the party frequently to creep on all-fours for a considerable distance. In the different chambers, which appeared to be of various dimensions, were numerous stalactite columns, in all degrees of formation, the lower parts of many of them, particularly in the interior, consisted of masses of petrifaction in pinnacles of various heights, the outsides of which were covered with a most beautiful frothy substance (the first stage of petrifaction), which on being rudely touched, dissolved instantly into water. The extreme cavern consisted of two divisions of an oblong form, on the floor of which lay a deep layer of dark vegetable

nould,* upon which, in various places, were seen the incipient formation of stalactite columns, a small one of which was easily removed by the writer, and with the assistance of one of the attendants, conveyed out of the cavern, but its beauty soon faded on approaching the atmosphere; and before it was lodged in his quarters it had lost much of its original snowy appearance, and was reduced to the size of the petrifaction of each nuclei of the different pinnacles that rose up from the base of the incipient columns.

'Without the rope the party would neither have reached the extremity of the cavern, nor found their way back. The advance of the party into the bowels of the mountain (chiefly on a descent), was found to be about 44 fathoms, measured on the rope; but as this was the direct distance by the nearest angles, their line of march must have extended more than 300 feet. A great number of bats were flying about, and one or two were caught in a torpid state.'

GEOLOGY AND SOIL.—Gibraltar is† composed chiefly of a rock of grey, dense, primary marble, the beds or strata of which are of various thickness, from 20 to upwards of 40 feet, dipping from E. to W. at an angle of nearly 35 degrees. Although now so far above the level of the sea, the promontory has evidently been at one time submerged beneath the ocean; pot-like holes, as before observed, are frequently met with hollowed out of the solid rock, as if by the attrition of pebbles in a strong current; one of these, 940 feet above the sea, was found to be five feet deep and three in diameter, the brim rounded off as if by art, and the sides and mouth retaining a considerable degree of polish. For $3\frac{1}{2}$ feet downwards, the cavity was filled with an argillaceous earth, thinly mixed with minute particles of transparent quartz crystals: the remaining foot and a half contained an aggregate of water-worn stones, from

* How such a quantity of *vegetable mould* came to be deposited at such a depth and distance from the surface of the rock, and of course the outward atmosphere, and where no vegetable production appeared to exist, may puzzle the scientific.

† According to Major Imrie.

the size of a goose egg to a walnut, and consisting of red jaspers; yellowish white flints, white quartz, and blueish white agates firmly combined with a yellowish brown stalactitical calcareous spar; in this breccia there was no fragment of mountain rock discoverable, or any other calcareous matter, except the cement with which it was combined. The earth obtained from these cavities is sought by gardeners with great avidity.

Testaceous bodies* have occasionally been found imbedded in the body of the rock, but they do not form regular strata. Stalactites and stalagmites are to be found in great abundance in the numerous caves, especially in St. Michael's. The further removed from the external air, the brighter they become in colour; near the surface they are of a brownish yellow and by degrees shade off to a whitish yellow.

Upon the western face of the hill, strata occur consisting of a number of thin beds of a blackish brown, or ferruginous-coloured earth. The lowermost strata is about a foot and a half thick, and rests upon a rock of an argillaceous nature: this stratum consists of quartz of a blackish-blue colour, in the septa or cracks of which, are found fine quartz crystals, colourless and perfectly transparent. They are called "Gibraltar diamonds."

Not far from the stratum that yields the diamonds, but nearer the level of the sea, is a stratum of argillaceous matter, the septa or clefts through which are covered with dendritical figures of a yellowish-brown colour resembling a landscape.

In some parts of the western face, towards the south, are found flints of a dirty, sap-green colour, embedded in a dark-red, shining clay.

Around Rosia Bay and the New Mole is found a beautiful breccia, composed of almost every fossil already enumerated, with the addition of two species of marble, the native beds of which have not been found in the mountain, one of them black, the other olive-green; the whole are combined by a

* For these geological observations I am indebted to Dr. Henen and Major Imrie.

calcareous cement of a yellowish colour, nearly approaching to orange. This breccia takes a high polish, and most houses in the garrison are supplied with beautiful chimney ornaments composed of it.

But the most curious of all the fossil productions of Gibraltar are the bones. These are found in the perpendicular fissures and cavities of the rock, imbedded in a calcareous concretion of a reddish-brown ferruginous colour, with an earthy fracture, and considerably indurated. They consist of the bones of various animals; quadrupeds, and birds of different sizes, thrown together without order, and intermixed with the shells of snails, fragments of rock and bits of spar, which are still to be observed in an uncombined state on the surface. Major Imrie's opinion is, that these substances have been swept off the surface by heavy rains, and carried into the fissures and cavities, which formerly opened to the surface, and have there undergone the action of permeating water, from which, in the course of a long series of years, calcareous matters have been deposited. In some fissures below the King's Lines, he has found the concretions to consist of the pebbles of the prevailing calcareous rock, and in one instance, the bottom of a glass bottle, of uncommon shape and great thickness, was imbedded in it. From a consideration of all the facts, it is denied that petrefaction has had any share in the production of the osseous breccia. It was supposed that many of the bones were human, as skulls or parts of bones like those of man have been found; and the miners, in forming the excavations to the northward, conceived that they had fallen in with a petrified human skeleton; but the probability is, that these bones were the remains of monkeys. Cuvier, who denies the existence of human bones among these fossil remains, enumerates those of the ox, deer, sheep, rabbit, water-rat, mouse, horse, ass, snakes and various birds. He found the bones of a ruminating animal of the order glires, which he conjectures may belong to the genus lagomys. All the shells contained in the Gibraltar conglomerate, he found to be of the fresh-water, or land species.

The chemical analysis of these bones, instituted by Mr. Hatchett, shows that they consist principally of the phosphate of lime, and that their cavities have been partly filled by the carbonate of lime, which agglutinates them together.

The spots where these fossil bones are found most commonly are about Rosia Bay in the south, and Prince's Lines at the north of the rock.*

No mineral waters have been discovered in Gibraltar. Near the base of the mountain on which stands the tower called the "Queen of Spain's Chair," about two miles from the garrison, there are two springs of a chalybeate nature, but the inpregnation I found, on examination, to be exceedingly weak. About seven hours' journey eastward from Gibraltar, are the baths of Hedionda, situated in the district of Casares, which are much resorted to by the natives in cutaneous affections, chronic rheumatism, obstinate ulcers, and affections of the kidneys and bladder, and the diseases of females. These waters abound in sulphuretted hydrogen gas: their temperature is $18\frac{1}{2}^{\circ}$ of Reaumur. By an analysis made by Dr. Colorado, of Casares, these waters are found to contain in 50 lbs. by weight, six grains of muriate of lime, 56 sulphate of magnesia, 35 sulphate of lime, 10 of magnesia, and 4 of siliceous earth, independent of a large quantity of sulphur, with which they so much abound, that the peasants make matches by simply dipping slips of linen in the stream. Baths and habitations have been erected at this place.

Shocks of earthquakes have been felt at Gibraltar, and many places bear the indications of volcanic agency. The great earthquake of Lisbon was first observed at Gibraltar on the forenoon of the 1st of Nov. 1755; it began with a trembling of half a minute, then a violent shock, and went off in trembling; the sea rose every fifteen minutes six feet eight inches, and fell so low that boats and fish were left dry. Shocks have been since felt at different periods.

* See Cuvier's Essay on the Theory of the Earth, translated by Jameson, 8vo.; Hatchett, in Philosophical Transactions, 1799; and Buckland's Reliquiæ Diluvianæ, 4to., London, 1824, p. 148.

The *Soil* is of several kinds; that on which the town is built is red sand, forming the largest bank of arenaceous matter on the W. side of the mountain; it consists of small particles of crystalized quartz, colourless, and perfectly transparent *paste*, but of an ocreous colour in the mass, on account of a red argillaceous earth adhering. On the E. side the sand bank is composed of small particles of calcareous rock, the whole being of a whitish grey colour. To the S. of the red sands the soil is variegated, in some places a light, loose, fine, and extremely fertile mould, becoming in the rainy season of a saponaceous sliminess; in some places a stiff marl soil and species of fuller's earth is found.

Dr. Gilkrest, the present talented and truly philanthropic Deputy Inspector General of Hospitals at Gibraltar, has, among many other valuable documents connected with the fortress, furnished me with the following observations on this subject which I subjoin, as illustrating that distinguished medical officer's remarks on the yellow fever and epidemics that have afflicted the garrison.

MEDICAL TOPOGRAPHY.—'Within this garrison it cannot be properly said that there is any marshy ground whatever, some except a small slip of low ground outside the wall, near the dock-yard, partly cultivated as a garden; but this cannot, though low, be considered as marshy, and no ill effects have ever been experienced from it by the workmen in the dock-yard; it seems altogether too insignificant to merit any attention whatever. The mass of the rock is composed of limestone. The soil varies at different points; that on which the upper part of the town is built is for the most part rocky. A considerable bank extends to the southward of the town, consisting of a red sand mixed with argillaceous earth; more to the southward there is light fertile mould, scattered irregularly in the fissures and depressions of the rock. Between the town and the extremity of the rock, called Europa Point, there is a cultivated line extending for about a mile at the base of the naked rock.

'The length of the rock from the northern barrier to the

extreme point opposite Barbary, is 4,700 yards. The breadth from the New Mole across to the Mediterranean side is 1,600 yards. At its southern extremity, from the highest point called the Sugar-loaf (1,439 feet above the level of the sea), it is abrupt to the rocky flat called Windmill Hill (400 hundred feet above the sea) where one regiment is usually quartered, and encampments are formed in epidemic years. This is terminated by precipitous rocks on all sides, below which is a second and more extensive rocky flat (100 feet above the sea), terminating also in precipices.* On these flats three regiments, besides artillery and engineers, were encamped, and found safety during the epidemic of 1828. The extreme point is formed by a piece of low ground of about three acres, bounded by scarped rocks, which rise about 60 feet above the water.

'This last spot is remarkable for having been chosen, in the epidemic of 1804, by Colonel Fyers, of the Royal Engineers, for his residence; he and his whole family (14 persons) escaped the disease.

'The surface of the rock abounds in fissures and caves; some of the latter of great length and depth, and affording stalactites. Breccia is found very frequently in beds between masses of limestone. A very perfect specimen of the bones of aquatic birds in a conglomerated mass, was found where a party of artificers had been blasting, some years ago, by a gentleman of the dock-yard. It was found at about 20 feet below the surface.

'*The Area of Gibraltar, Cultivated, or admitting of Cultivation.*—Within the town. Governor's ground, 2 acres; small gardens, parterres, &c. in various parts of the town, 8; farms on the side of the rock above the town,† 10; north

* At about 50 feet above the level of the sea, and nearly due E., there is a vast mass of *bone-breccia* in the precipitous side of the rock.

† One of these farms is 680, and the other 712 feet above the level of the sea; but neither in the late, nor in former epidemics, have their inhabitants been exempt from the yellow fever.

glacis and ditch, 3; south glacis and ditch, 6; from town to district called 'South,' inclusive, 50.

'There are three remarkable depressions, or gullies, formed by the rain, and directed into the upper part of the town. In some seasons the torrents of rain down three gullies have been so great as to cause vast damage and some loss of lives. On the last occasion (Nov. 17th, 1834), 10 lives were lost, and the quantity of earth and stones washed down into some of the upper streets reached to the height of from 16 to 18 feet, and in some of the lower streets, to from 3 to 10 feet.

'The distance over the sandy isthmus, lying between our works and the Spanish lines, is 1,650 yards: its width varies from 1,200 to 1,750 yards. Of this surface about 100 acres near the garrison are in gardens or grass land; and on this last part the troops encamp, at the discretion of the governor, as do the inhabitants during epidemic seasons. The sandy surface is continued into Spain for a considerable way.

'On the neutral ground water, lodging after rains, is permanent throughout the year in pools only at one or two points in the purely sandy surface near where the British territory ends, but to a very trifling extent.

'The situation of our men in camp on the neutral ground during the epidemic of 1823 was made very comfortable by the floors of their tents being paved; and the supply of tents furnished admitted of one being allotted to every four men. Iron bedsteads were also furnished.

'On this isthmus, which goes under the general denomination of the Neutral Ground, the air is at all times in considerably greater motion than on the eastern and western face of the rock: and, as may be presumed, a stiff breeze is frequently felt there when the air within the walls is only agitated moderately.

'What has been said respecting the health of Gibraltar in the average of years will apply to the Neutral Ground; but seasons occur when the contrary is observed, and cases of fever of a very severe form have occasionally appeared in regiments encamped in non-epidemic years, as well as among

the gardeners. Communicating with the neutral ground by a deep sandy road of about a quarter of a mile, stands a military post, with a small village, inhabited by fishermen. This, though generally a healthy spot, has furnished some cases of severe fevers in particular years.

'A causeway leads to the neutral ground from the town, on the right of which, is an artificial inundation which covers a surface of a few acres. This was anciently a morass; but many years ago it was dug two feet below the level of low water mark, and means are constantly employed to keep it in order and free from offensive accumulations.

CLIMATE AND DISEASES.—The foregoing brief outline of the medical topography of Gibraltar is necessary, in order to explain the climate and diseases of Gibraltar. The Andalusian atmosphere has long been celebrated for its salubrity, and, with some exceptions, of late years the climate of Gibraltar is decidedly healthy, except for hard drinkers and phlegmatic constitutions. The temperature is decidedly warm, the hottest months being June, July, August and September; and the coldest December, January, and February. Snow rarely falls, and ice is seen no thicker than a dollar; and the mercury ranges from 85° in July, to 50° in January: but the winds and the rain affect more acutely the animal frame than the solar heat. From 1816 to 1827 the greatest height of the barometer was $30^{0}\frac{90}{100}$—the lowest $28^{0}\frac{62}{100}$. Hail occasionally falls with much violence, and is generally accompanied by a thunder storm, not unfrequently preceeded by brilliant lightning, coruscations and falling stars, and other meteoric phenomena are observable; in 1753, a fire ball shot over the rock with prodigious swiftness, in a direction from W. to E.. and after the space of a minute and a half, exploded with a very loud report. In a period of 10 years, from 1816 to 1825, the number of rainy days in each month was—January, 91; February, 71; March, 62; April, 101; May, 61; June, 18; July, 4; August, 9; September, 29; October, 57; November, 95; December, 88. Total, 686.

But although the greatest number of rainy days is shewn

to have been in April, the *quantity* of rain falling is greatest in January. The heaviest rains are accompanied with S.E. winds, those from the S. of E. being raw, black and bleak, and termed a 'genuine Levanter,' dislodging numerous masses of rock, which roll down the hill with prodigious violence, realising the Portuguese proverb—

'Quando com Levante chove
As Pedras move.'

Or, in doggrel English,—

'A rainy Levanter
Makes the stones canter.'

The Levanters are accompanied generally with thick impenetrable fogs which roll over the rock and down its sides, depositing considerable quantities of moisture wherever they touch.

WINDS are divided into E. and W., the duration of each may be seen by the following meteorological records from the books of the principal medical officer's office.

WINDS FROM 1810 TO 1815.

In 1810, winds easterly,	164 days;	westerly, 194 days;	variable, 7 days.
1811,	198	160	7
1812,	159	189	18
1813,	233	114	18
1814,	219	133	13
1815,	200	161	4
Total	1,173	951	67

In these six years the E. exceeding the Westerly by 222 days. In the subsequent 10 years the proportion was—

In 1816, winds easterly,	206 days;	westerly, 160 days.
1817,	208½	156½
1818,	186	179
1819,	167½	197½
1820,	153½	212½
1821,	172	193
1822,	171½	193½
1823,	153	212
1824,	169	197
1825,	184½	180½
Total	1,771½	1,881½

The duration of these winds in different months for the preceding ten years, between 1816 and 1825 is thus exhibited—

January,	winds easterly,	140½	days; westerly,	169½	days.
February,	. .	140	. .	143	.
March,	. .	153	. .	157	.
April,	. .	134½	. .	165½	.
May,	. .	125½	. .	184½	.
June,	. .	139½	. .	160½	.
July,	. .	174½	. .	135½	.
August,	. .	167½	. .	142½	.
September,	. .	167½	. .	132½	.
October,	. .	154	. .	156	.
November,	. .	157	. .	143	.
December,	. .	131	. .	179	.

Hence it will be observed that the easterly winds are most prevalent in July, August and September, and westerly in December, January and May. It is probable, from the observations of Ayala, Mr. Carter and others, that the easterly winds prevailed formerly more extensively than at present, and that Gibraltar, like other places, has experienced a great change of climate; how far the latter and the rains affect the health of the troops in this important garrison, is a point of the utmost importance, and will fully justify the following observations by Dr. Gilkrest which I have just received.

On the Yellow Fever Epidemics of Gibraltar.—'In the present state of the question, regarding the yellow fever, it is not necessary to enter elaborately into proofs of its occurrence in many other places besides Gibraltar, where there are few *apparent* sources of those noxious exhalations reputed, universally, as giving origin to fevers of a large class: by documents now within the reach of every body, we have arrived at the certainty of its so occurring in places seemingly unlikely to produce it. That the appearance of this fever is often favoured, and its character sometimes modified by low, marshy situations, or more quickly developed near receptacles of putrid substances, and in confined and ill ventilated situations, there can be no doubt in the minds of those who

have devoted any attention to the subject. But that any one of these causes is *essential* to its production, must, I think, be now considered as a position utterly untenable. Let the history of the disease, in whatever part of the world it has appeared, be but casually glanced at, and it will be perceived that, in situations remote from marshes or reservoirs of filth; in places perfectly arid in appearance, or even rocky, and in a manner insulated (as Stony-hill barracks, Jamaica) the terrible malady of which I speak has reigned over and over again in a destructive form. Putrid animal and vegetable exhalations are as little explanatory to me of the production of the yellow fever at Gibraltar, as they were, in my experience in former years, unsatisfactory in accounting for the production of the disease on several elevated stations occupied by our troops in the West Indies;—especially Fort Bourbon, Martinique, Morne Bruce, Dominique, or Morne Fortuné, St. Lucie; at which places, and indeed in all others in the West Indies, there are moreover uncertain periods of the occurrence of the disease equally inexplicable as in Spain, not being preceded or accompanied in either country by appreciable physical differences in those years in which they occur.

'The ingenious production of Dr. M'Culloch, on Malaria, furnishes little which can be considered as new to long experienced medical men of that class to which I belong. Many of our opinions, far from being speculative, have been most lamentably drilled into us, as it were, by experience, and the necessity of observing. Our statements or opinions will not be undervalued when it is considered, that our peculiar station in life exposes us to be witnesses of facts connected with such subjects as the present; repeatedly, perhaps, varied in every way, and on a scale infinitely better calculated to lead to just inductions, than any which can be drawn from partial or more limited experience in private life.

'Though the yellow fever, as well as ague is usually generated in low situations; our experience in various parts of the world produces a most perfect knowledge of the fact, that for the production of neither the one nor the other is a

low situation or a marsh essential. In Portugal, in the high district of Beira, and many miles from marshes, I have seen ague prevail,* and have myself suffered from it while encamped in the midst of rocks and on an arid scanty soil, scarcely firm enough to hold our tent-pegs: and here, and in the West Indies, I have seen the disease reign in places elevated considerably above the level of the sea.

'I consider it as time misapplied when I find assigned as causes for the appearance of yellow fever in a given place, any of those circumstances which must fall at once to the ground by examining the question as it relates to some other place, or even to the same place in former epidemics:—or again where the causes assigned exist every year, while the visitations of the disease, epidemically, are periodical. For instance, much of what has been said as to the rock screening the town of Gibraltar (which is situated on its western side), from due perflation, falls at once to the ground by our looking no further than Cadiz, which is screened by no hill, but stands on a peninsula, projecting far into the sea, and at the the extremity of which that city is swept by every wind that blows.

'In a subject like the present, involved in great mystery, we make some approach by being able to shew what the disease is not owing to. With this view I have drawn up various meteorological tables for many years past, and shall here throw together some facts established at Gibraltar, likely to set at rest the reputed influence of certain agents considered by some, on a hurried view of the question, as indispensable to the production of the yellow fever, if not the sole cause.

'1st. A temperature, in epidemic years, much above the usual standard of the season at which the disease occurs.

'By a reference to my tables I find that though *a certain*

* In a report forwarded by Dr. Gilkrest to the Medical Board, regarding the medical topography of Portugal, it has been shewn that intermittents appear at Braganza (province of Tras-os-Montes) 2,200 feet above the level of the sea, and, at Chaves (same province), 2,000 feet above the level of the sea.

degree of heat has been here, as every where else, one of the conditions under which the yellow fever has been always produced, the Gibraltar epidemics have not occurred in the very hottest years.*

To the feelings 1828 was one of the coolest summers remembered for a length of time; and though it averaged for the five warm months (from June to October) rather a higher range than in the preceding year, the difference was too trifling to be taken into account, especially when we observe that we have been healthy at Gibraltar in years much hotter, and that in the three months in 1827, corresponding to those which preceded the commencement of the epidemic of 1828, the average difference of heat was *greater* by $2\frac{1}{3}$ degrees.

For many days during the progress of the disease, the contrast between our calamitous state in the garrison, and the beautiful scenery presented in the bay and from the opposite coast, heightened by the clear atmosphere and by the refreshing breezes from the Atlantic, was very remarkable.

Respecting epidemics of former years in Spain, we have the statements of the best Spanish authors as to the fact of their not appearing oftener in the very hottest years, though their appearance in a very hot year may have happened in one or more instances. In 1752 the heat was so excessive here that the inhabitants, during the night, fancied that their houses were on fire, and birds forsook their nests, but no epidemic took place. The following shews the

Average daily state of Thermometer in 1827 and 1828.

FIRST QUARTER.	1827	1828	THIRD QUARTER.	1827	1828
At 9 A. M.	57°	58½°	At 9 A. M.	76¼°	76½°
12 Noon	60¼	62¼	12 Noon	78	76½
5 P. M.	59½	60¼	5 P. M.	78½	78
SECOND QUARTER.			FOURTH QUARTER.		
At 9 A. M.	69½	69¼	At 9 A. M.	59½	61½
12 Noon	70½	70¼	12 Noon	62¼	63½
5 P. M.	71¼	69¼	5 P. M.	63	64½

In 1827—average heat in August greater than in August, 1828, by $3\frac{1}{2}$°.
In 1828—average heat in July greater than that of July, 1827, by $2\frac{1}{4}$°.

* In the researches of Humboldt regarding the origin of the yellow fever

June, 1827—16 days' thermometer, above 76°; hottest day, 29th, 82½; four days, above 80.

June, 1828—15 days' thermometer, above 76°; hottest day, 30th, 82½; seven days, above 80.

July, 1827—17 days' thermometer, above 80½°; hottest day, 13th, 85½; four days, above 83.

July, 1828—20 days' thermometer, above 80½°; hottest day, 6th, 86½; nine days, above 83.

August, 1827—17 days' thermometer, above 81°; hottest day, 12th, 86; six days, above 84.

August, 1828—8 days' thermometer, above 81°; hottest day, 7th, 87; five days, above 84.

2ndly. State of Barometer.—On this point there is very little to be said. By observations for ten years, from 1816, its greatest height was—$30\frac{90}{100}$ inches; its lowest descent, $28\frac{60}{100}$ inches.

In two months preceding our late epidemic, and during two of its progress, it has been—

Average in—	July.	August.	Sept.	October.
	Inches.	Inches.	Inches.	Inches.
	$29\frac{93}{100}$	$29\frac{93}{100}$	$29\frac{97}{100}$	$30\frac{7}{100}$
In a corresponding period in 1827 .	$30\frac{7}{100}$	$29\frac{93}{100}$	30	$29\frac{90}{100}$

Lightning, with or without Thunder.

1827—In first half year, none. In second half year, six days.

1828—In first half year, three days. In second half year, three days.

3rdly. Great weight has been given to statements regarding the influence of an unusual quantity of rain in epidemic years, or to rain in those years having fallen in less quantity. Such circumstances are not to be hastily rejected in the consideration of any disease; but, with a view of detailing whatever may be supposed to bear on the history of the Gibraltar epidemic of 1828, a table of the indications of the

at Vera Cruz, the same thing was observed. He states that, in comparing thermometrical tables kept at that place for 18 years preceding 1794, in which the disease did not make its appearance, he found that the heat in the latter year (in which the disease did occur) far from being greater than in those years in which it did not occur, was actually less.—*Humboldt's Political Essays, vol. iv. p.* 194.

pluviometer at Gibraltar since the year 1790 is subjoined. This will shew that the fearful yellow fever has visited this place in years remarkable for the fall of much rain, as well as in those years in which but comparatively little fell. An abstract here given of the fall of rain in some healthy years, as well as in some in which epidemics have occurred, may be also useful.

Average yearly fall of rain at Gibraltar for ten years, from 1816, $26\frac{8}{100}$ inches. (Another average for 10 years gives 32 inches.)

RAIN FALLEN IN EIGHT HEALTHY YEARS.

Years in which a quantity fell above the average.		Inches.
1792	1st 6 months	$28\frac{36}{100}$
	Last 6 months	$11\frac{49}{100}$
	Total	$39\frac{85}{100}$
1796	1st 6 months	$15\frac{57}{100}$
	Last 6 months	$47\frac{30}{100}$
	Total	$62\frac{87}{100}$
1803	1st 6 months	$24\frac{10}{100}$
	Last 6 months	$23\frac{61}{100}$
	Total	$47\frac{71}{100}$
1805	1st 6 months	$18\frac{61}{100}$
	Last 6 months	$28\frac{89}{100}$
	Total	$47\frac{50}{100}$

Years in which a quantity fell below the average.		Inches.
1794	1st 6 months	$10\frac{66}{100}$
	Last 6 months	8
	Total	$18\frac{66}{100}$
1801	1st 6 months	$8\frac{33}{100}$
	Last 6 months	$8\frac{12}{100}$
	Total	$16\frac{45}{100}$
1806	1st 6 months	$10\frac{56}{100}$
	Last 6 months	$4\frac{12}{100}$
	Total	$14\frac{76}{100}$
1822	1st 6 months	$7\frac{77}{100}$
	Last 6 months	$10\frac{24}{100}$
	Total	$18\frac{1}{100}$

RAIN FALLEN IN SEVEN SICKLY YEARS.

		Inches.
1799	1st 6 months	$14\frac{71}{100}$
	Last 6 months	$22\frac{46}{100}$
	Total	$37\frac{17}{100}$
1800	1st 6 months	$19\frac{75}{100}$
	Last 6 months	$6\frac{79}{100}$
	Total	$26\frac{54}{100}$

		Inches.
1804	1st 6 months	$27\frac{30}{100}$
	Last 6 months	12
	Total	$39\frac{30}{100}$
1810	1st 6 months	$18\frac{57}{100}$
	Last 6 months	$9\frac{76}{100}$
	Total	$28\frac{33}{100}$

		Inches.
1813	1st 6 months	$14\frac{97}{100}$
	Last 6 months	$17\frac{29}{100}$
	Total	$32\frac{26}{100}$
1814	1st 6 months	$20\frac{35}{100}$
	Last 6 months	$7\frac{83}{100}$
	Total	$28\frac{18}{100}$

		Inches.
1828	1st 6 months	$13\frac{23}{100}$
	Last 6 months	$8\frac{27}{100}$
	Total	$21\frac{50}{100}$

Comparative number of Days on which Rain fell in the years 1826, 1827, and 1828.

	Number of Days.				Number of Days.		
	1826.	1827.	1828.		1826.	1827.	1828.
January	20	6	2	July	..	2	2
February	6	21	9	August	2	1	4
March	9	4	..	September	2	8	1
April	4	8	6	October	8	8	5
May	8	3	10	November	11	8	18
June	2	..	..	December	6	6	7
Total first six months	49	42	27	Total last six months	29	33	37

Total number of days' rain in . . . Inches.
1826—78, being a depth of $28\frac{15}{100}$
1827—75, being a depth of $25\frac{89}{100}$
1828—64, being a depth of $21\frac{50}{100}$

Depth of rain fallen in 1828, up to the period of the appearance of the first cases of the yellow fever . $13\frac{24}{100}$
Same for the corresponding period in 1827 . . $13\frac{40}{100}$
Same for the corresponding period in 1826 . . $17\frac{85}{100}$

It was found that, in 1828, the very heavy rain which fell in the latter end of October, and for some days in the month of November, did not put a sudden stop to the progress of the disease. A similar fact has been always observed with regard to the fall of rain during the epidemics of Spain.

4thly. Regarding winds, it appears that, in the three months, from the 1st of June to the last day in August, 1828, there were only 39 days of easterly wind, and only 19 in the months of July and August of that year; while, in the months of June, July, and August, 1827, there were 59 days of easterly wind, 39 being in July and August.

Comparative Table for a period of six years, comprising two Epidemic years, viz. 1813 and 1814; and a third year (1810) in which several Sporadic cases appeared.

	East.	West.	Variable.		East.	West.	Variable.
1810	164	194	7	1813	233	114	18
1811	198	160	7	1814	219	133	13
1812	159	189	18	1815	200	161	4

Comparing the easterly winds, in the Epidemic year, 1828, with those of the two preceding years, the difference stands thus,—

In 1826 . . . . . 179½ days.
In 1827 . . . . . 162 days.
In 1828 . . . . . 164½ days.

In 1828 the W. winds, or those to the N. or S. of it, exceeded the E., or those to the N. or S. of it, by 36 days.

Westerly and south-westerly winds prevailed in 1828, during the months of February, July, and October. In August there were 15 days' easterly wind; in September 13½; in October 11. Days of easterly wind from June to 1st September, 39.*

The following tables will afford further interest to the inquirer.

1827 (*a healthy year at Gibraltar*).—*Abstract of Meteorological Observations for the Months of January, February, March, April, May, and June.*

	9 A.M.	12 Noon.	5 P.M.
JANUARY.—Average state of Thermometer -	54½°	57°	56¼°
Coldest day, 7th (Thermometer 46°)			
Prevalent Wind, —— W.			
Rain.			
Light Showers, —— 1 day.			
Heavy Rain, —— 5 days.			

* With regard to *winds*, one thing seems very certain in this and other parts of Spain, that a cool wind from the N. or N.E. has been found to be so unfavourable to yellow fever epidemics as to cut them short when they occur. Humboldt has made observations to the same effect regarding the yellow fever at Vera Cruz.

		9 A. M.	12 Noon.	5 P. M.
FEBRUARY.—	Average state of Thermometer -	54½°	57°	56¼°
	Coldest day, 9th (Thermometer 49°)			
	Prevalent Wind, —— E. and W.			
	Rain.			
	Light Showers, —— 8 days.			
	Heavy Rain, —— 13 days.			
MARCH. ——	Average state of Thermometer -	62°	66°	65¼°
	Coldest day, 9th (Thermometer 58½°)			
	Prevalent Wind, —— W.			
	Rain.			
	Heavy Showers, —— 4 days.			
APRIL. ——	Average state of Thermometer -	65½°	68¼°	68°
	Coldest day, 24th (Thermometer 62°)			
	Prevalent Wind, —— E.			
	Rain.			
	Light Showers, —— 1 day.			
	Heavy Rain, —— 7 days.			
MAY. ———	Average state of Thermometer -	69¾°	68½°	70°
	Ditto ditto of Barometer, — 29.9¾			
	Hottest day, 24th (Thermometer 80°)			
	Prevalent Wind, —— S. W. and E.			
	Rain.			
	Heavy Showers, —— 3 days.			
JUNE.———	Average state of Thermometer -	74°	75¼°	76½°
	Ditto ditto of Barometer 29.9¾			
	Hottest day, 29th (Thermometer 82½)			
	Prevalent Wind, —— E. and S. W.			

Abstract for the Quarter ending in March.

Average state of Thermometer 57° 60¼° 59¼°.
Coldest day, 7th January, (Thermometer 46°.)
Prevalent Wind, —— W. and E.

Rain.

Light Showers, —— 9 days.
Heavy Showers, —— 22 days.

Abstract for the Quarter ending in June.

Average state of Thermometer 69¼° 70¾° 71¼°.
Ditto ditto of Barometer 29.9¾.
Hottest day, 29th June (Thermometer 82½).
Prevalent Wind, —— E. and S. W.

Rain.

Light Showers, —— 1 day.
Heavy Showers, —— 10 days.

Depth of Rain fallen from January to June, 13 inches, 40 parts.

1827 (*a healthy year at Gibraltar*).—*Abstract of Meteorological Observations for the Months of July, August, September, October, November, and December.*

		9 A. M.	12 Noon.	5 P. M.
JULY. ——	Average state of Thermometer -	77½°	79¼°	80½°
	Ditto ditto of Barometer 30.0¾.			
	Hottest day, 13th (Thermometer 85½°)			
	Prevalent Winds, —— E. and W.			
	Rain.			
	Light Showers, —— 2 days.			
AUGUST. ——	Average state of Thermometer .	77¾°	79¾°	81°
	Ditto ditto of Barometer 29.9¾.			
	Hottest day, 12th (Thermometer 86°)			
	Prevalent Winds, —— E. and S. W.			
	Rain.			
	Light Showers, —— 1 day.			
SEPTEMBER.—	Average state of Thermometer -	71°	73°	74½°
	Ditto ditto of Barometer 30.0¾.			
	Hottest day, 21st (Thermometer 78½°)			
	Prevalent Winds, —— E. and N. W.			
	Rain.			
	Light Showers, —— 1 day.			
	Heavy Rain, —— 7 days.			
	Thunder and Lightning, 16th, 17th, 24th.			
OCTOBER.——	Average state of Thermometer -	64½°	66¾°	67¾°
	Ditto ditto of Barometer 29.9.			
	Hottest day, 3rd (Thermometer 72½°)			
	Prevalent Winds, —— W. and E.			

Rain. 9 A. M. 12 Noon. 5 P. M.
Heavy Showers, —— 8 days.
Thunder and Lightning, 9th, 13th.

NOVEMBER.—Average state of Thermometer - 58¾° 61½° 63°
Ditto ditto of Barometer 30.0.
Hottest day, 6th (Thermometer 65°)
Prevalent Winds, —— E. and N. W.

Rain.
Light Showers, —— 5 days.
Heavy Rain, —— 3 days.
Lightning, 10th.

DECEMBER.—Average state of Thermometer - 55½° 58¼° 58½°
Ditto ditto of Barometer 30.1½.
Hottest day, 1st (Thermometer 63½°)
Prevalent Winds, —— N. W. and E.

Rain.
Light Showers, —— 1 day.
Heavy Rain, —— 5 days.

Abstract for the Quarter ending in September.

Average state of Thermometer 76½° 78° 78¾.
Ditto ditto of Barometer 30.0.
Hottest day, 12th August (Thermometer 86°).
Prevalent Wind, —— E. and S. W.

Rain.
Light Showers, —— 4 days.
Heavy Showers, —— 7 days.
Thunder and Lightning, 10th, 17, 24th September.

Abstract for the Quarter ending in December.

Average state of Thermometer 59½° 62¼° 63°.
Ditto ditto of Barometer 30.0.
Hottest day, 3rd October (Thermometer 72¼°).
Prevalent Wind, —— E. and N. W.

Rain.
Light Showers, —— 6 days.
Heavy Showers, —— 16 days.
Thunder and Lightning, 9th, 16th Oct. and 10th Nov.

Depth of Rain fallen from September to December, 12 inches, 59 parts.

1828 (*a Yellow Fever Year*).—*Abstract of Meteorological Observations for the Months of January, February, March, April, May, and June.*

		9 A. M.	12 Noon.	5 P. M.
JANUARY.—	Average state of Thermometer -	58½°	61½°	60¼°
	Coldest day, 1st (Thermometer 56°)			
	Prevalent Wind —— E. and W.			
	Rain.			
	Heavy Showers, —— 2 days.			
FEBRUARY.—	Average state of Thermometer -	57½°	61°	9½°
	Coldest day, 24th (Thermometer 55°)			
	Prevalent Wind —— W.			
	Rain.			
	Heavy Showers, —— 9 days.			
	Thunder and Lightning, 18th, 19th.			
MARCH.—	Average state of Thermometer -	60½°	64½°	61°
	Coldest day, 1st (Thermometer 56°)			
	Prevalent Wind —— E. and W.			
APRIL.—	Average state of Thermometer -	63¼°	66¾°	64°
	Coldest day, 7th (Thermometer 61°)			
	Prevalent Wind, —— E. and W.			
	Rain.			
	Light Showers, —— 1 day.			
	Heavy Rain, —— 5 days.			
	Thunder and Lightning, 6th.			
MAY. ——	Average state of Thermometer -	69¾°	69¼°	70°
	Ditto ditto of Barometer 29.9¼.			
	Hottest day, 29th (Thermometer 77¾°)			
	Prevalent Wind —— E. and W.			
	Rain.			
	Light Showers, —— 9 days.			
	Heavy Rain, —— 1 day.			
JUNE. ——	Average state of Thermometer -	75°	75°	75°
	Ditto of Barometer 29.9¾.			
	Hottest day, 30th (Thermometer 82¼)			
	Prevalent Wind, —— E. and W			

Abstract of the Quarter ending in March.

Average state of Thermometer 58¾° 62¼° 60¼°.
Coldest day, 24th February, (Thermometer 55°).
Prevalent Wind —— W. and E.

Rain.

Heavy Showers, —— 11 days.
Thunder and Lightning, 18th, 19th February.

Abstract for the Quarter ending in June.

Average state of Thermometer 69½° 70¾° 69½°.
Ditto ditto of Barometer 29.9½.
Hottest day, 30th June, (Thermometer 82½°).
Prevalent Wind, —— E. and W.

Rain.

Light Showers, —— 10 days.
Heavy Showers, —— 6 days.
Thunder and Lightning, 6th April.

Depth of Rain fallen from January to May, 13 inches, 23 parts.

1828 (*a Yellow Fever Year*).—*Abstract of Meteorological Observations for the Months of July, August, September, October, November, and December.*

		9 A. M.	12 Noon.	5 P. M.
JULY. ——	Average state of Thermometer -	80¼°	79°	80°
	Ditto ditto of Barometer 29.9¼.			
	Hottest day, 6th (Thermometer 86¼)			
	Prevalent Wind, —— S. W. and W.			
	Rain.			
	Light Showers, —— 2 days.			
AUGUST. ——	Average state of Thermometer -	78°	77¼°	79°
	Ditto ditto of Barometer 29.9¼.			
	Hottest day, 7th (Thermometer 87°)			
	Prevalent Wind, —— E. and S. W.			
	Rain.			
	Light Showers, —— 4 days.			
SEPTEMBER.—	Average state of Thermometer -	72°	74°	75¼
	Ditto ditto of Barometer 29.9¾.			
	Hottest day, 6th (Thermometer 79°)			

9 A. M. 12 Noon. 5 P. M.

Prevalent Wind, —— E. and S. W.
Rain.
Light Showers, —— 1 day.

OCTOBER.——Average state of Thermometer - 66° 69° 70¼°
Ditto ditto of Barometer 30.0¾.
Hottest day, 7th (Thermometer 76°)
Prevalent Wind, —— W. and E.
Rain.
Light Showers, —— 1 day.
Heavy Rain, —— 4 days.

NOVEMBER. — Average state of Thermometer - 62° 63¼° 64°
Ditto ditto of Barometer 29.9½.
Hottest day, 7th (Thermometer 66½)
Prevalent Wind, —— E. and S. W.
Rain.
Light Showers, —— 6 days.
Heavy Rain, —— 12 days.
Thunder and Lightning, 7th, 8th, 10th.

DECEMBER.—Average state of Thermometer - 57° 59¼° 60½°
Ditto ditto of Barometer 30.1¼.
Hottest day, 9th (Thermometer 64½)
Prevalent Wind, —— E. and W.
Rain.
Light Showers, —— 2 days.
Heavy Rain, —— 5 days.

Abstract of the Quarter ending in September.

Average state of Thermometer 76¾° 76¾° 78°.
Ditto ditto of Barometer 29.9¼.
Hottest day, 7th August, (Thermometer 87°).
Prevalent Wind, —— E. and W.
Rain.
Light Showers, —— 7 days.

Abstract of the Quarter ending in December.

Average state of Thermometer 61¾° 63¾ 64¾.
Ditto ditto of Barometer 30.0¼.
Hottest day, 7th October, (Thermometer 76°).
Prevalent Wind, —— E. and W.

Rain.
Light Showers, —— 9 days
Heavy Showers, —— 21 days.
Thunder and Lightning, 7th, 8th, 10th November.

Depth of Rain fallen from August to December, 8 inches, 27 parts.

5thly. Whether the yellow fever originated in this garrison in 1828 from a crowded population?—It is impossible that this can be answered in the affirmative when we reflect that in so many cities and towns, in latitudes within which the fever prevails (some of them with a most crowded population, and not possessing half the comforts which the lower classes do here), that formidable disease does not occur. When we are aware too that in years in which the population has been here comparatively low (1804 for instance, when a great number of the houses had small gardens or parterres attached them), the disease has prevailed; and that in some years in which the garrison has been remarkably populous it has happened that no epidemic has prevailed.

It is ascertained that in the healthy years 1811 and 1812, the population was a one-fourth greater than in the epidemic year 1813. If we compare the population of 1828 with that of some healthy years immediately preceding, we find it rather decreased. Besides, the dwellings of the mass of the inhabitants here are improved within the last 25 years, though it must be admitted that a great number of these dwellings of the poorer classes are objectionable, being crowded together so as to form close courts, admitting of very imperfect ventilation. The lower classes live pretty comfortably in ordinary years, and there is more cleanliness among them than in times when yellow fever epidemics were not, at least as far as records go, quite so frequent. But to set this point in its proper light, we have only to be informed of the ravages which it makes in excellent well ventilated buildings in the West Indies and other places; and of the no less destructive course it so often takes in Spain,—not only in open and very moderately populated towns, but even in villages, where there cannot be the slightest idea of over-crowding. It is proper to add that the yellow fever was far from having been confined to the worst buildings in Gibraltar. In the district called 'the South,' in which it has always appeared later in the season than in the town itself, the houses are distributed pretty much as in a village.

6thly. It needs no great experience in yellow fever to be

able to speak as to the impossibility of accounting for the phenomena connected with the spreading of the disease in this garrison, from the drains and sewers;—for though the fever made its appearance earlier in houses situated near sewers, and though, in its progress afterwards, we observed its predilection for the neighbourhood of drains, sewers and cesspools, as well as for gullies, &c,—it became quite evident that such places were to be considered only as accessaries,—the allies of an enemy, who burst forth upon us rather than the powerful enemy himself. But that the presence of such places was not essential to the production of a yellow fever epidemic here, is demonstrated by their not existing in other places in equal, or nearly equal, latitudes, where that disease shews itself; and from its having appeared so generally on the rock as the season advanced, while nuisances from the sewers, &c. became diminished from two causes:—the desertion of the districts in which the disease first prevailed by the inhabitants; and, next, from the measures taken by the Government here to clear out and purify those places.

The old inhabitants of Gibraltar can never be got to admit that collections of filth have any effect whatever in favouring the breaking out of the yellow fever:—they will point out, in all directions, places which within the last 25 years, have been free from nuisance, and within that time have perhaps been ornamented, which had previously from time immemorial been immense reservoirs of filth, giving out exhalations the most offensive and unsupportable; and all this in years when yellow fever epidemics were not known.

Relative to prevalent Winds at Gibraltar for 10 Years, in which no Epidemics appeared.

Months.	Number of Days on which the Wind blows to the East, or to the North, or Southward of it.	Number of Days on which the Wind blows to the West, or to the North, or Southward of it.
January	140½	160½
February	140	143
March	153	157
April	134½	165½
May	125½	164½
June	139½	160½
July	174½	135½
August	167½	142½
September	167½	132½
October	154	156
November	157	143
December	131	179

Relative to Winds at Gibraltar for 10 Years, in which no Epidemics appeared.

Years.	Number of Days Easterly, or to the North or Southward of it.	Number of Days Westerly, or to the North, or Southward of it.
1816	205	160
1817	207½	157½
1818	187	179
1819	167½	197½
1820	153	212
1821	172	193
1822	171½	193½
1823	153½	212½
1824	168½	196½
1825	184½	180½

Table, shewing the quantity of Rain fallen at different years at Gibraltar, from 1790 to 1828.

	Inches.	Parts.	Total each Season. Inches.	Parts.
From 2d October to 31st Dec. 1790	18	65		
.. 31st Jan. to 20th June, 1791	6	44	25	9
.. 21st Sept. to 31st Dec.	15	69		
.. 1st Jan. to 7th July, 1792 ..	28	36	44	5
.. 13th August to 31st Dec.	11	49		
.. 1st Jan. to 29th May, 1793 ..	7	59	19	8
.. 23d Sept. to 31st December..	11	70		
.. 1st Jan. to 16th June, 1794..	10	66	22	36
.. 8th September to 31st Dec...	8	0		
.. 1st Jan. to 19th June, 1795..	13	56	21	56
.. 3d September to 31st Dec. ..	10	7		
.. 1st Jan. to 28th May, 1796 ..	15	57	25	64
.. 19th August to 31st Dec	47	30		
.. 1st Jan. to 11th May, 1797 ..	17	30	64	60
.. 10th August to 31st Dec.....	15	75		
.. 1st Jan. to 16th June, 1798..	14	80	30	55
.. 5th October to 31st Dec.....	16	48		
.. 1st January to 3d July, 1799	14	71	31	19
.. 3d September to 3d Dec.	22	46		
.. 1st Jan. to 11th June, 1800..	19	75	42	21
.. 5th August to 31st Dec.	6	79		
.. 1st January to 19th May, 1801	8	33	15	12
.. 14th September to 31st Dec.	8	12		
.. 1st January to 8th July, 1802	21	37	29	49
.. 20th September to 31st Dec.	18	54		
.. 1st January to 8th July, 1803	24	10	42	64
.. 9th September to 31st Dec...	23	61		
.. 1st January to 4th May, 1804	27	30	50	91
.. 25th August to 31st Dec.....	12	0		
.. 1st January to 27th May, 1805	18	61	30	61
.. 1st October to 31st Dec.	28	89		
.. 1st January to 5th June, 1806	10	56	39	45
.. 1st October to 31st Dec.	4	20		
.. 1st January to 18th June, 1807	25	49	29	69
.. 24th September to 31st Dec.	14	32		
.. 1st January to 7th May, 1808	18	69	33	1
.. 8th September to 31st Dec.	13	44		
.. 1st January to 18th May, 1809	17	78	31	22

	Inches.	Parts.	Total each Season. Inches.	Parts.
From 10th Oct. to 31st Dec. 1809 ..	18	79		
.. 1st January to 16th June, 1810	18	57	37	36
.. 21st August to 31st Dec.	9	76		
.. 1st January to 18th June, 1811	17	92	27	68
.. 12th September to 31st Dec.	15	60		
.. 1st January to 7th May, 1812	24	77	40	37
.. 11th September to 31st Dec.	18	544		
.. 1st January to 22d June, 1813	14	48¾	33	3
.. 24th September to 31st Dec.	17	144		
.. 1st Jan. to 28th May, 1814 ..	20	17½	37	32
.. 23d September to 31st Dec...	7	83		
.. 1st January to 28th June, 1815	20	52	28	35
.. 9th September to 31st Dec...	16	34		
.. 1st January to 14th June, 1816	12	54¾	28	58
.. 20th September to 31st Dec.	12	69		
.. 1st Jan. to 20th June, 1817..	14	1	26	70
.. 27th August to 31st Dec.....	12	68		
.. 1st January to 9th June, 1818	11	33	24	1
.. 25th September to 31st Dec.	19	70		
.. 6th Jan. to 21st June, 1819..	11	77	31	47
.. 24th August to 31st Dec.....	11	87		
.. 1st January to 15th June, 1820	24	41	36	28
.. 21st August to 30th Dec.....	12	22		
.. 3d January to 1st May, 1821	23	8	35	30
.. 11th October to 30th Dec. ..	9	51		
.. 6th Jan. to 25th May, 1822..	7	77	17	28
.. 19th August to 30th Dec.....	10	24		
.. 4th Jan. to 11th June, 1823..	16	41	26	65
.. 4th August to 21st Dec.	9	8		
.. 7th January to 13th May, 1824	11	65	20	73
.. 7th August to 24th Dec.	5	42		
.. 11th Jan. to 22d June, 1825..	15	44	20	86
.. 22nd August to 31st Dec.....	13	93		
.. 2nd Jan. to 1st June, 1826 ..	17	85	31	78
.. 19th October to 17th Dec. ..	10	33		
.. 4th January to 1st June, 1827	13	40	23	73
.. 1st September to 19th Dec...	12	59		
.. 2d Jan. to 24th May, 1828 ..	13	23	25	82
.. 1st August to 27th December	8	27		

The following tables may be found interesting to many.

Statement of Deaths during the Epidemic in Gibraltar, from the 1st September, 1828, to the 14th January, 1829.

Period.		Military.					Inhabitants.				Grand Total.	Remarks.
From	To	Officers.	Men.	Women.	Children.	Total.	Men.	Women.	Children.	Total.		
1828	1828											The greatest mortality during the week on the
1st Sept.	7th Sept.	..	1	..	..	1	10	4	5	19	20	6th Sept. (6 died)
8th —	14th —	..	6	..	2	8	13	9	10	32	40	Do. the 11th (8 died)
15th —	21st —	1	11	1	1	14	30	8	7	45	59	Do. the 21st (12 died)
22nd —	28th —	1	22	..	2	25	51	21	9	81	106	Do. the 28th (21 died)
29th —	5th Oct.	..	31	2	1	34	82	35	20	137	171	Do. the 4th (36 died)
6th Oct.	12th —	1	67	3	3	74	85	21	21	127	201	Do. the 7th (33 died)
13th —	19th —	..	75	3	2	80	115	43	32	190	270	Do. the 16th (45 died)
20th —	26th —	..	56	4	2	62	78	26	17	121	183	Do. the 23d (30 died)
27th —	2nd Novr.	..	53	3	2	58	77	33	19	129	187	Do. the 27th (32 died)
3rd Novr.	9th —	1	51	..	2	54	50	19	9	78	132	Do. the 4th (34 died)
10th —	16th —	2	23	1	1	27	31	26	11	68	95	Do. the 11th (27 died)
17th —	23rd —	1	19	..	..	20	13	11	10	34	54	Do. the 17th (12 died)
24th —	30th —	1	6	..	5	12	10	10	4	24	36	Do. the 29th (7 died)
1st Dec.	7th Dec.	1	9	..	3	13	9	3	9	21	34	Do. the 3rd (8 died)
8th —	14th —	..	7	..	3	10	11	6	6	23	33	Do. the 10th (7 died)
15th —	21st —	..	7	1	..	8	3	1	2	6	14	Do. the 19th (4 died)
22nd —	28th —	..	2	..	..	2	8	8	2	18	20	Do. the 25th (6 died)
	1829											
29th —	4th Jan.	..	..	..	3	3	4	1	1	6	9	Do. 2nd Jan. (4 died)
5th Jan.	11th —	..	1	..	..	1	2	..	5	7	8	Do. the 7th (2 died)
12th —	14th —	..	1	..	..	1	2	1	1	4	5	Do. the 13th (3 died)
	Total.	9	448	18	32	507	684	286	200	1170	1677	Last Deaths on the 14th Jan. when 2 died.

Memoranda relative to mortality from yellow fever at Gibraltar in five years in which it has appeared, since 1804 inclusive.

1804.—Military (including officers), 869; civilians, 4,864. Total, 5,733.

1810.—Military, 6; civilians, 17. Total, 23.

1813.—Military, 391; civilians, 508. Total, 889.

1814.—Military, 114; civilians, 132. Total, 246. Greatest number of deaths in September; disease began to decline from 6th October; no admissions or deaths after the 20th November.

1828.—Military, 507; civilians, 1,170. Total, 1,677. Greatest number of deaths on the 16th October; disease began to decline about the middle of November; last death on the 14th January, 1829.

For many interesting points relative to the yellow fever of Gibraltar, see article *Yellow Fever*, by Dr. Gilkrest (to whom

I am indebted for the preceding facts), in the Cyclopœdia of Practical Medicine; but I cannot refrain from giving here from the above memoir, the opinions of two members of a Commission appointed to inquire into the origin of the epidemic of 1828, demonstrating that it was not an *imported* disease.

Mr. Judge HOWELL—"Upon a careful review of all the proceedings before this Board, I am of opinion that the evidence brought forward has totally failed to prove that the late epidemic disease was introduced from any foreign source, either by the Swedish ship *Dygden* or by any other means; and I am further of opinion that the late epidemic had its origin at Gibraltar."

Colonel Chapman (now Major-General Sir Stephen Chapman, Governor of Bermuda)—"Judging from the evidence produced before the Board, the manner in which it has been given, together with the description of persons who have been brought forward as witnesses, I am decidedly of opinion that the attempts to prove the introduction of the disease, after months of previous inquiry by those who wished to prove it, have totally failed."

This table of the diseases from which the greatest mortality usually arises, shews the occurrences among the troops at Gibraltar, during four ordinary (i. e. not epidemic) years.

Diseases.	1830. Strength 3688		1831. Strength 3458		1832. Strength 3524		1833. Strength 3159	
	No. Treated.	No. Died.	No. Treated.	No. Died.	No. Treated.	No. Died.	No. Treated.	No. Died.
Fevers	508	8	345	11	446	9	232	2
Dysenteric Affections ..	430	8	468	1	312	1	241	1
Hepatic Ditto.....	51	1	31	1	24	..	24	3
Pulmonic Ditto.....	676	24	545	19	481	18	411	24
Total....	1665	41	1389	32	1263	28	908	30

Occurrences in regard to Diseases, &c. in a Regiment stationed for nine years at Gibraltar:—Arrived in the garrison, Nov. 1823, strength being 533; reinforcements within the

period, 329; invalided or sent to England for the recovery of health, 69; average strength annually, 507; average deaths annually, $5\frac{7}{10}$.

Deaths in nine ordinary (*i. e.* not epidemic) years, in the regiment referred to:—Fevers, (remittent) 3: do. (continued) 9; inflammation of the lungs, 3; inflammation of the bowels, 2; liver complaints, 3; phthisis, 21; dysentery, 6; other diseases and accidents, 10; total in nine years, 57.

VEGETABLE KINGDOM.—Gibraltar is not the barren rock that has been supposed; Colonel James mentions the names of 310 different trees and plants growing on the promontory. Several kinds of fruits are cultivated, and the vine and fig flourish in exuberance; after rains vegetation is richly luxuriant. The olive, almond, orange, lemon, and indeed every tree planted in a proper spot, thrive on Gibraltar; in the naval garden in the south are some noble date trees; the prickly pear runs wild, the aloe abounds, and the palmetto was formerly plentiful. Geraniums of almost every species grow in the utmost profusion, and a great variety of wild and cultivated plants and herbs are found in every part of the mountain. Among the *native* fruits brought to market are seven or eight kinds of grapes, figs, oranges, lemons, pomegranates, almonds, apples, peaches, plums, apricots, (vulgo '*Kill Johns*') cherries, strawberries, &c. and potatoes, cabbages, onions, cucumbers, artichokes, tomatas, peas, kidney beans, spinage, lettuces, radishes, &c. &c. are produced in abundance. During the latter part of the last siege, the quantity of vegetables grown was sufficient for the supply of the garrison, and the quantity of garden ground is now augmented.

ICHTHYOLOGY.—The different kinds of fishes observed at the market at Gibraltar, may be thus classified; the list is not pretended to be complete: in former times the bay was so celebrated for its fishing of *tunny* and salmonettas that coins were struck in which these fish are represented.

Order 1. Apodal., ventral fins, none.

No. of Genus.	Generic Names.	Specific Names.	English Names.
1	Muraena	Helena	Roman Eel.
..	Ditto	Ophis	Spotted Sea Serpent.
..	Ditto	Serpens	Serpent Eel.
..	Ditto	Anguilla	Common Eel.
..	Ditto	Mytus	Flat-tailed Sea Serpent.
..	Ditto	Conger	Conger Eel.
2	Gymnotus	Acus	Needle G.
3	Gymnothorax	Caeca	Blind G.
7	Ophidium	Barbatum	Bearded Oph.
..	Ditto	Imberbe	Beardless Oph.
9	Xiphias	Gladius	European Sword Fish.

Order 2. Jugular, ventral fins before jugular.

13	Callionymus	Lyra	Gemmeous Dragonet.
14	Uranoscopus	Scaber	
15	Trachinus	Draco	Sting Bull.
16	Gadus	Minutus	Poor Cod Fish.
..	Ditto	Blennoides	
..	Ditto	Merluccius	Hake.
..	Ditto	Albidus	
..	Ditto	Mustela	Five-bearded Cod.
..	Ditto	Tricirratus	Three-bearded Do.
..	Ditto	Mediterranicus	
17	Blennius	Ocellaris	Ocellate Blenny.
..	Ditto	Gattorugine	
..	Ditto	Teutacularis	
..	Ditto	Phycis	Forked Hake.
..	Ditto	Pholis	Smooth Blenny.

Order 3. Thoracic, ventral fins under jugular.

19	Cepola	Taenia	
..	Ditto	Rubescens	
20	Echineis	Remora	Sucking Fish.
21	Coryphaena	Hippuris	
22	Gobius	Niger	Black Goby.
..	Ditto	Bicolor	Two-coloured Goby.
..	Ditto	Cruentatus	Blood-spotted Goby.
..	Ditto	Paganellus	
23	Cottus	Gobio	Miller's Thumb.
..	Ditto	Massiliensis	
24	Scorpaena	Porcus	
..	Ditto	Scrofa	
25	Zeus	Faber	John Dorée.
26	Pleuronectes	Solea	Sole.
..	Ditto	Maximus	Turbot.
28	Sparus	Auratus	Lunulated Gilt Head.
..	Ditto	Maena	
..	Ditto	Pagrus	Red Gilt Head.
..	Ditto	Spinifer	
..	Ditto	Salpa	
30	Labrus	Pavo	
..	Ditto	Julis	
..	Ditto	Tinca	Wrasse, Old Wife.
..	Ditto	Ballan	Ballan Wrasse.
..	Ditto	Bimaculatus	Bimaculated W.
..	Ditto	Viridis	
..	Ditto	Livens	
..	Ditto	Gibbus	Gibbous W.
..	Ditto	Olivaceus	
..	Ditto	Fuscus	
..	Ditto	Unimaculatus	
..	Ditto	Venosus	
..	Ditto	Griseus	
..	Ditto	Guttatus	
..	Ditto	Varius	

Order 3—*continued.*

No. of Genus.	Generic Name.	Specific Name.	English Name.
30	Labrus	Cynaedus	
32	Perca	Labrax	Basse.
..	Ditto	Pusilla	
..	Ditto	Mediterranea	
..	Ditto	Gigas	
34	Gasterosteus	Ductor	Pilot Fish.
35	Scomber	Scomber	Common Mackarel.
..	Ditto	Thynnus	Thunny.
..	Ditto	Trachurus	Horse Mackarel.
37	Mullus	Barbatus	Red Surmullet.
..	Ditto	Surmuletus	Striped S.
38	Triglia	Hirundo	Tub, or Sapphine.
..	Ditto	Cuculus	Red Gurnard.
..	Ditto	Cataphractus	
..	Ditto	Lyra	Piper.
..	Ditto	Gurnadus	Grey Gurnard.

Order 4. Abdominal, ventral fins behind jugular.

49	Argentina	Sphyraena	European Arg.
50	Atherina	Hespetus	Atherina.
51	Mugil	Cephalus	Mullet.
52	Exocaetus	Evolans	Flying Fish.
54	Clupea	Alosa	Shad.
..	Ditto	Encrasicolus	Anchovy.

Order 5. Branchiostegous, gills destitute of bony rays.

58	Tetrodon	Mala	Short Sun Fish.
60	Syngnathus	Acus	Needle Fish.
..	Ditto	Ophidion	Little Pipe Fish.
..	Ditto	Hippocampus	
65	Lophius	Piscatorius	Angler Frog Fish.

Order 6. Chondropterygious, gills cartilaginous.

66	Acipenser	Sturio	Sturgeon.
68	Squalus	Canicula	Spotted Dog Fish.
..	Ditto	Catulus	Lesser Spotted Do.
..	Ditto	Zygaena	
..	Ditto	Vulpes	Sea Fox.
70	Raia	Torpedo	Electric Ray.
..	Ditto	Oxyrinchus	Sharp-nosed R.
..	Ditto	Miraletus	
..	Ditto	Rubus	Rough R.

Considerable quantities of the tunny are taken at the present day, both for immediate food, and for exportation, dried, salted, or preserved in oil. The bonito, mackarel, and anchovy are taken in great numbers, the latter in particular forming a valuable export to the Genoa market. The *Muræna Helena,* so prized by the ancient Romans, that we are told Crassus went into mourning for the death of a favourite one, is here within reach of the poorest individual, and being

considered a coarse fish it is not much esteemed. The sepia, or cuttle fish, which is very abundant, forms a delicious article of diet when well washed, deprived of its bone, and properly cooked. The sword-fish is frequently brought to market, and the Gibraltar eels are much prized.

The *Simple Shells*—consisting only of one single shell, and having no hinge, are not very abundant.

1. *Patella.*—The striated limpit, the starry limpit, the beaked limpit; besides these, there are several of the patellas, some of which are very beautiful.

2. *Haliotis.*—The great ear shell; the long ear shell.

3. *Dentalium.*—The striated tooth shell.

4. *Nautilus.*—The paper nautilus.

5. *Cochleæ,* Snails.—The echimated cochlea; the wide mouthed snail; the toothed nerite snail; the cornu ammonis snail; the rough trochus; the mitre shell; the tower of Babel shell; the rough-mouthed buccinum; the needles shell; the vice admiral: the admiral; the tyger shell.

6. *Minices.*—The spider shell, and some others of the muret.

7. *Purpma.*—The thorny woodcock shell; the common woodcock shell; the caltrop shell; and some others of the purpma.

8. *Dolium.*—The mulberry shell; the white-mouthed yellow dolium; the thin gondola shell.

9. *Porcellana.*—The boat porcellana; the pointed-headed porcellana, and some others.

Bivalves, or such as have the external covering or shell composed of two parts or valves.

10. *Ostrea.*—Large rock oysters; the great prickly oyster.

11. *Chama.*—The Arabian shell; the old woman shell, or wrinkled chama; the zigzag chama.

12. *Mitulus.*—The coated muscle; the pinna marina, and other of the mituli.

13. *Cardia.*—The ox heart cockle; the Noah's ark heart shell; the rough or heart shell; and some others of the cardia.

14. *Pecten.*—The red and white scallop; the coral scallop; the yellow scallop; the ducal mantle scallop; the thin scallop, and others of the pectines.

15. *Solenes.*—The thick razor shell; the blueish crooked razor shell.

Multivalves.—Having the outer covering or shell composed of more than two pieces of valves.

16. *Balanus.*—The narrow-mouthed grey balanus; the great wide-mouthed balanus.

17. *Polliceps.*—The blueish polliceps; the goose shell.

18. *Centroniæ.*—The common round sea egg; the blue roundish sea egg; the high-backed sea egg; the sea apple, some others.

ENTOMOLOGY.—As in other warm climates, the insect tribes are numerous, and the mosquitoes in summer are particularly annoying to new comers. The *lepidoptera,* or caterpillar tribe are prolific; grasshoppers overrun the neutral ground, and a southerly wind in 1753 brought from Africa an immense swarm of huge locusts, with brown spotted wings, red legs, and bright yellow bodies, which, fortunately for the garrison, a sudden change of wind to the E. beat into the sea, where they were washed ashore in heaps. On another occasion a swarm of butterflies made their appearance in a similar manner. The moths are large and very beautiful, and the domestic annoyances plentiful.

ANIMALS—Do not differ from those of the Andalusian province with the exception of monkeys, several families of which have located themselves on the rock; they are probably an importation from Barbary, but they are so extremely wary that it is quite impossible to get near them, and a skeleton has scarcely ever been found.

Foxes formerly abounded, and a pack of hounds was kept by some of the merchants; hares and rabbits, wild cats, rats, and mice, are prolific. Large flocks of goats browse over the rocks, and their milk and flesh is excellent. Horses, mules, and asses, are imported from Spain at a moderate price.

Birds are similar to those on the peninsula; eagles, hawks and kites, build their airy nests in the rocky summits, and are at at all times seen hovering about in quest of prey; bats *(vespertilio marinus)*, and owls, swarm in the caves; and pigeons (wild and tame), poultry, geese, ducks, and red-legged partridges, larks, starlings, thrushes, blackbirds, finches, &c. &c. abound.

POPULATION.—It is more than probable that while in the early possession of the Moors Gibraltar was thickly peopled by that enterprising nation.

The earliest census I have been enabled to obtain is thus given by Colonel James.

A list of constant inhabitants, taken March 20th, 1753:—

Those of Great Britain. Number of men, women, boys and girls, 331; Navy and Victualling Office, 83; Genoa, 597; Spain, 185; Portugal, 25; Jews, 572; total, 1,793.

The next census was taken the 28th September, 1754:—

Roman Catholics:—men, 250; women, 112; boys, 135; girls, 295. Jews, 604; British, I have not heard there was any account taken; suppose the same as in the year 1753, 414; total, 1,810.

The total number of military, supposing the four regiments complete, 2,800; Artillery, 107; Officers, military and civil, to complete the four regiments, 182; number of women, military and children, 1,426; total number of Britons, Civil, 414; military, 4,452; total, 4,866.

The number of Catholics short of the Protestants, 4,074; the number of souls of all sects in the garrison, 6,260.

The census of the Civil population since 1754 is thus stated:—1791, mouths, 2,885; 1801, 5,339; 1807, 7,501; 1811, 11,173; 1813, 12,423; 1814,* 10,136; 1816, 11,401; 1817, 10,737.

* Diminished in November, 1813, to 7,370 individuals, owing to the voluntary removal or forcible expulsion of many individuals and by the ravages of the epidemic.

A Colonial Office manuscript furnishes the following statement.

Years.	White and Coloured Free People.		Persons Employed.		Births.	Marriages.	Deaths.
	Males.	Females.	Agriculture.	Commerce.			
1825	8240	7240	—	—	685	78	332
1826	8193	7248	—	—	852	77	550
1827	8480	7914	110	317	732	56	1600
1828	8480	7914	93	307	622	85	384
1829	8752	8272	—	—	529	74	332
1830	8752	8272	113	1095	535	89	362
1831							
1832							
1833							
1834	7419	7589					

The following return is to January, 1835.

Civil Population of Gibraltar and Territory.

	No. of Houses or Dwellings.	Number of Persons.	Total Population.
Within the Walls of the Town ..	1384	12622	
On the Southern part of the Rock	330	1718	
On North Front outside the Gates, and the Fishing Village at Catalan Bay, at the foot of the Eastern side of the Rock.....	67	368	15008
Living in Government Quarters	..	300	
Total.....	1781		

The foregoing population consists of males, 7,419; females, 7,589; total, 15,008. Of whom 10,122 are natives and British subjects, and 4,886 resident Aliens.

The resident aliens are composed of the following nations:

Nation.	Males. Above 12 years of age.	Males. Under 12 years of age.	Females. Above 12 years of age.	Females. Under 12 years of age.	Total of each Nation.	Occupations of the Inhabitants.
British Subjects ..	402	33	406	33	874	160 Merchants; 226 Shopkeepers;
Native Christians ..	1893	1901	2245	1937	7976	303 Clerks; 48 Landed Proprietors; 4 Lawyers and Notary Publics; 24 Doctors and Apothecaries;
Native Jews	395	183	484	210	1272	99 in Government Civil Service;
Barbary Jews ..	315	..	37	1	353	15 in Religious Establishments;
Brazilians	8	..	7	..	15	62 in Religious Establishments;
French	40	..	21	1	62	19 in Religious Establishments;
Dutch	2	..	..	..	2	25 Brokers; 309 Hawkers and
Germans	21	..	2	..	23	Dealers; 1042 Tradesmen and
Genoese	736	8	367	5	1116	Mechanics; 43 Wine and Spirit
Greeks	5	..	..	..	5	Dealers; 267 Gardeners, Brokers,
Ionian Islands ..	6	..	..	..	6	Butchers, Fruit and Milk Sellers;
Italians	120	..	19	..	139	880 Tobacconists' and Cigar
Moors	13	2	1	..	16	Makers; 408 Mariners, Boatmen,
Portuguese	414	4	251	5	674	Lightermen, and Fishermen; 646
Prussians	1	..	..	..	1	Porters, Labourers, Carters, Coach-
Spaniards	878	32	1520	30	2460	men, and Water-Carriers; 2473
South Americans ..	3	..	5	..	8	Servants, Laundresses, and Seam-
Swedes	1	..	..	..	1	stresses; 364 Miscellaneous. The
Swiss	..	..	1	..	1	following are without employment
Turks	1	..	..	..	1	or assisting in domestic affairs—
Citizens of the United States	2	..	1	..	3	625 Men; 1985 Boys; 2957 Women; 2101 Girls.—Total 15008.
Total	5256	2163	5367	2222	15008	

The statistical returns of the Board of Trade state the population of Gibraltar in 1831 thus:—

Area in Square Miles.	Whites. Males.	Whites. Females.	Blacks. Males.	Blacks. Females.	Total. Males.	Total. Females.	Aliens and Resident Strangers.	Proportion to Square Mile.	Persons employed in Agriculture.	Persons employed in Commerce.	Births.	Marriages.	Deaths.
1 2/3	8,741	8,268	11	4	8,752	8,272	6,908	10,214	113	1,095	456	65	367

A number of aliens were, on a revision of permits, warned to leave the garrison in 1832.

Military Establishment of Gibraltar.—Major-General, Aid-de-camp, Colonel of Engineers, Assistant Military Secretary, Town Major, Town Adjutant, Garrison Quarter Master, Garrison Chaplain, Provost Marshal; 1 Company of Sappers and Miners, 5 Companies of Royal Artillery; 5 regiments of the line at present, but subject to variation. *Six* is the re-

gular peace establishment at the present strength of regiments.

The following table shews the military strength of the garrison for the last 18 years :—

Return of the numbers and distribution of the effective force, Officers, Non-Commissioned Officers, and Rank and File of the British Army at Gibraltar, in each year since 1815, including Artillery and Engineers.

	Officers Present, or on Detached Duty at the Station.													
	Colonels.	Lt. Colonels.	Majors.	Captains.	Lieutenants.	Ensigns.	Paymasters.	Adjutants.	Quarter Masters.	Surgeons.	Assistant Surgeons.	Serjeants.	Drummers.	Rank and File.
25th January, 1816	1	2	4	33	57	21	2	4	3	3	10	193	91	2,967
1817	1	2	6	35	71	28	4	4	4	4	6	229	91	3,826
1818	..	3	6	34	51	20	4	4	4	2	6	199	86	3,392
1819	1	4	6	40	43	25	3	3	3	3	6	176	81	3,344
1820	1	5	5	32	38	24	4	4	5	4	4	142	81	2,869
1821	1	4	6	27	34	27	4	4	5	5	4	130	86	2,632
1822	1	5	5	27	41	19	3	4	3	4	3	125	50	2,604
1823	1	5	3	24	44	17	3	4	4	3	5	119	50	2,533
1824	1	4	7	30	43	19	4	3	4	5	3	123	48	2,542
1825	1	3	8	32	44	24	5	4	5	5	3	149	60	2,987
1826	1	7	4	37	49	19	4	6	6	5	4	191	69	3,352
1827	1	7	5	32	47	19	3	5	5	5	6	169	60	2,982*
1828	1	6	5	37	43	14	4	5	5	4	7	172	62	2,929*
1829	1	6	6	48	53	24	4	5	6	6	12	199	69	3,519
1830	1	8	4	40	47	23	5	4	5	5	8	196	70	3,531
1st January, 1831	1	7	5	35	39	24	5	4	5	7	9	196	66	3,310
1832	1	8	2	35	40	18	5	6	6	7	6	186	68	3,105
1833	1	5	4	32	41	17	5	4	6	5	7	194	69	3,188
1834	1													
1835	1													

Commissariat Department.—Deputy Commissary General; one Assistant ditto; three Deputy ditto.

Medical Department.—Deputy General Inspector of Hospitals; one Deputy Purveyor; five Assistant Staff Surgeons, who have, in addition to other duties, especial surveillance of the state of health of the civil poor in the different districts into which the garrison and territory are divided.

Storekeeper's Department.—Storekeeper; Deputy ditto; five Clerks. N. B. This Deputy is in charge of Gunners, naval stores, as well as of military stores.

Barrack Department.—Two Barrack Masters, having in

* Exclusive of two regiments detached to Lisbon, and including one from Malta.

charge six excellent barracks for the accommodation of the regiments of the line.

Police Establishment.—Police Magistrate; Director of Police, who is also a Coroner; 14 Police Officers, for the different districts and posts of the garrison and territory.

Port Establishment for the jurisdiction of the Bay Quarantine Duties.—Captain of the Port; Lieutenant of the Port; Midshipman of the Port. The two latter residing in the guard boat.

There is much poverty among the poorer classes at Gibraltar, especially among the aliens; the lower order of Moors and Jews have a filthy appearance; they wear a sort of frock composed of flimsy blanketing, with a hood and sleeves for wet weather; loose cotton drawers, open at the knees, the legs bare, the feet in clumsy slippers, and skull-cap of greasy woollen; this garb is frequently worn night and day until it drops to pieces. Provisions, such as beef, mutton, lamb, &c. procured from Spain or Barbary, are good but rather high priced; fish is plentiful, but the chief dish of the lower orders is called *gespacho*, and is composed of water, vinegar, oil, capsicums, garlic and salt, into which bread is broken: all the family sit round the bowl, each person helping himself with a wooden spoon. The usual beverage is Spanish wine, from Malaga and Catalonia.

Market Prices of Provisions in January, 1835, in Gibraltar, Malta, and Corfu.

	Gibraltar.	Malta.	Corfu.
	s. d.	*s. d.*	*s. d.*
Beef, per lb.	0 6½	0 4	0 3
Mutton, do.	0 7	0 4½	0 3½
Veal, do.	0 9	0 6	0 6
Turkey,	5 0	6 0	6 0
Fowl	1 6	1 5	1 8
Eggs, the dozen	0 7½	0 4	0 6
Bread, 1st quality, per lb.	0 2¼	0 1¼	0 1½
Ditto 2nd ditto	0 2	0 1⅛	0 1
Wine, common, per pint	0 2	0 1⅛	0 1½
Oil, ditto	0 4½	0 6¼	0 5
Firewood, the 1,000 lbs.	6 6	9 7	6 0
Expense of washing a dozen pieces	3 3	1 0	1 6

GOVERNMENT.—The chief administration lies in the Governor, who is of course the commander-in-chief of the troops;

and the settlement is treated as a garrison town. The laws of England are generally applied at Gibraltar, and the Charter of Justice of 1830 provides that the courts shall administer the law as nearly as may be according to the practice of Westminster Hall.

The following detail of functionaries will help to explain the establishments which exist.

Law Courts of Gibraltar.—Supreme Court.—The Judge, Attorney General, Master Registrar and Clerk of Arraigns (those offices are in one person); Clerk, Marshal, Deputy Marshal.

Court of Vice Admiralty.—The Governor, Deputy Governor, Commissary and Judge, Registrar, King's Advocate and Proctor, Advocate and Proctor of the Admiralty, Marshal, Deputy Marshal.

Court of Requests for the Recovery of Small Debts.—Commissioner (Police Magistrate), Registrar, Marshal and Interpreter.

Court of Quarter Sessions for Petty Offences.—Justice of the Peace (the Police Magistrate), Clerk of Arraigns, Interpreter and Crier.

A Collector of Revenues, an Inspector of Revenues, an Auditor of Revenue Accounts.

Pratique Office.—At which Port Charges are received, three Clerks.

Naval Establishment.—One Clerk, in charge of Dockyard, Victualling Stores, and Naval Tanks, calculated to hold 1,017, 120 gallons of water.

Quarantine Board.—Lieut. Governor, Civil Secretary, the Captain of the Port, the Police Magistrate, the Inspector of Health, Secretary.

Town Board of Health.—The Police Magistrate, and 11 other Gentlemen (civil and military), to concert measures for the prevention of nuisances, &c. &c.

Gibraltar Civil Hospital. An Establishment for the reception alike of the sick poor of different persuasions; from its *general funds*, hospital accommodation and equipment,

medical attendance, and medicines are supplied; but as the general funds are not sufficient for the *support* of the patients, each particular religious persuasion is at the expence of dieting its own sick whilst in hospital, by subscriptions raised among themselves.

The building, formerly called 'The Blue Barracks' (previously in a state of ruin), having been appropriated and fitted up at the expense of Government, was given over for occupation as a civil hospital in 1815. Since that period, however, such considerable sums of money from local, public (i. e. contributions and port charges), and also from private sources, have been expended in large additions of building improvements, and in completing the establishment to its present extended state of usefulness and perfection, as to render it at this moment an inseparable amalgam of original government and civil property. In its present state it is capable of containing eighty patients.

The dieting and washing of the patients, servants, funerals, &c. are paid for by annual subscriptions and donations raised by the three predominant persuasions among themselves, each defraying that of its own class and number of sick.

Example. The total expense of the hospital for diets, washing, servants, funerals, and other contingencies last year, was—3,493 *dollars*, 6 *reals*, 12 *quarters*—viz.

Paid by the Protestant Division, 984 *dol.* 1 *rs.* 4 *qu.*; by the Catholic Division, 2,509 *dol.* 5 *rs.* 8 *qu.*; total, 3,493 *dol.* 6 *rs.* 12 *qu.* And the average daily expense of each patient for the above was 3 reals and 12 quarters currency, or one shilling and fourpence farthing, the exchange being at 52^{d}.

The number of patients who received aid during the years 1833 and 1834 at the civil hospital at Gibraltar:—

1833. In Patients, 274; viz. Protestants, 79; Catholics, 176; Hebrew and Mahometan, 19; total, 274.

Out Patients, 7098; viz. Protestant, 202; Catholics, 6,496; Hebrew and Mahometan, 400; 7,098.

1834. In Patients, 477; viz. Protestants, 114; Catholics, 336; Hebrew and Mahometan, 27; total, 477.

Out Patients, 6,109; viz. Protestants, 369; Catholics, 5,330; Hebrew and Mahometan, 410; total, 6,109.

Places of Worship.—A spacious Protestant Church has been erected within the last few years, and a Protestant Chapel, in the building called the Convent, the residence of the Governor or Lieut. Governor,—also a Roman Catholic Church within the walls of the town, and a small Roman Catholic Chapel in the dictrict called 'The South;' the clergymen being usually Genoese. There are four Jewish Synagogues.

Of *Public Schools* there is one small garrison school, and also regimental schools in each of the corps stationed in the fortress; the numbers attending being 176 males, and 138 females, total, 314. A school for children of the different persuasions; the number in 1835 being about 1,200.

As to the *Press* there is little to say further than that a government newspaper exists.

The public library at Gibraltar is one of the finest in Europe; the patriotic Colonel Drinkwater may be considered its founder in 1793. The medical library, as also that founded by the merchants, are of more recent origin, but fast augmenting, particularly the former.

The Police of Gibraltar owes its present existence, exclusively to his Excellency Sir George Don.* Previous to the year 1814, the garrison was infamous for its filth; without sufficient common sewers, without an efficient scavenging department, without pavements on proper principles; in short, it had obtained the bad pre-eminence of being the dirtiest garrison under the British Crown. On landing at the New Mole, the first objects that struck the eye, were certain enclosures marked "Depôt," in which all the filth of the neighbourhood was stored up to be removed at leisure. The fœtor from these collections was offensive in the extreme; the effluvia which arose from them were diffused all around, and they were placed so close to each other,

* Dr. Hennen, to whom I am indebted for these observations, pays a just tribute to the exertions of this active Lieutenant Governor.

as to keep up a chain of putrescent exhalations, which tainted the whole atmosphere.

The work of reformation soon commenced,—the depôts were emptied into the sea, and the necessary measures were taken for constructing common sewers through the principal streets. From the rocky nature of the ground, in most situations, this was a work of considerable labour and expense, but by judicious plans and patient perseverance, it was accomplished in a most effectual manner; many thousand running feet of new drains have been constructed, and minor ones in communication with the main trunks.

The town-major is director of police, with a suitable proportion of town serjeants, &c. &c., and there are two subdirectors outside the garrison—officers in military charge of Catalan Bay, and the villages and buildings on the neutral ground and north front, whose duty it is, as much as possible, to regulate the health concerns of the mixed population which form the mass of the inhabitants of these places.

There is a regular scavenging department, which not only attends the town, but every part of the garrison and neutral ground, where the animal matter is brought out, divided from the other rubbish, and buried on the eastern extremity of the beach. This branch is under the superintendence of the garrison quarter-master.

By the police regulations all householders, principal inhabitants, and occupiers of separate buildings, stores, or warehouses, are to be provided at all times, at their several premises, with a strong tub or cask, for receiving the dirt and filth which may accumulate in the course of the twenty-four hours, to be in readiness for the carts of the scavenging department to remove the contents daily.

Dirty water, dust, dead animal and vegetable matter, or filth of any description, is forbidden to be thrown out of the windows or doors, or to be placed in the streets, passages, or gutters, under a penalty.

The butcheries and markets are under excellent regula-

tions. No cattle are permitted to be slaughtered in any other place than the *zoca* or butchery on the neutral ground, (with the exception of calves under particular restrictions.) The hours of slaughtering are limited to between three o'clock P.M. and sun-set; and the meat is not allowed to be brought into the garrison before the next morning; so that abundant time is given it to cool and to be thoroughly cleansed; the time for conveying it into the garrison is limited to two hours after sun-rise. The cleansed offal—as head, heart, suet and tallow, is permitted to be brought into the garrison in the evening that the animal is killed, for the purpose of immediate sale, but no garbage of any description is admitted at any time. In the neighbourhood of the *zoca*, sheds for several hundred head of cattle* are erected. Their food consists of about ten pounds of chopped straw, four of beans bruised, and a proportion of barley per diem, with water once a-day *ad libitum*.

The meat is conveyed in covered carts, crates, or baskets, and the filthy practice of blowing by the mouth is forbidden. With regard to the place of sale, the regulations are equally judicious; no unwholesome or tainted meat is permitted to be sold; no live cattle of any description are permitted to enter the market; nor are hides, wool, or lumber allowed to remain in the stalls. No beds are permitted within the market-place. All the stalls are washed every evening throughout the year, and no individuals are allowed to remain in them at night. They are whitewashed twice a month. The cleanliness and regularity of the slaughter-houses, cattle-stalls, &c. is a branch of the police under the town adjutant. The stalls are let out, and the product forms part of an orphan-fund.

The practice of erecting stalls and benches in the public streets, for the sale of goods, is entirely prohibited. Temporary benches are permitted to be placed in certain situa-

* The cattle for the troops are chiefly procured from Barbary, under a treaty by which 2,000 head are annually permitted to be exported from that country, for the use of the garrison: whatever surplus remains after the supply of troops, is sold by the contractor for his own benefit. The breed is very small, but they fatten rapidly.

tions during the early part of the day, for general convenience.

Taverns, wine-houses and eating houses, are placed under strict regulations: the admission and lodging of strangers is directed to be attended to in the most rigid manner, and the whole are placed under the immediate surveillance of the police.

The burial-places of Gibraltar were suspected of being very efficient agents in the production of the epidemic of 1813.* The smell issuing from the principal one is described by Dr. Robertson as having been extremely offensive, and he expresses his astonishment that with such a source of fever existing within it, the garrison was ever free from that disease. The old burial-ground in South Port Ditch was suspected of similar ill effects. Whether these suspicions were well or ill founded, the main causes of complaint, have been removed, and the principal burying-ground is now on the neutral ground. Charnel-house effluvia occasionally arise from it, and in some instances water has flowed into the graves, which might have afforded similar exhalations on evaporation, but the perpetual current of air, the grand neutralizer of all insalubrious miasmata, renders them innocuous to the inhabitants of the town.

The Red Sands, between the Grand Parade and the South Pavilion, was formerly the principal receptacle for the dead. The greater part of these sands is now converted into gardens, and only a very small spot remains, which is occasionally used for officers. The Jews, also, have a burial-ground on Windmill Hill, in a very airy and elevated situation. An old burial-ground, now no longer used, is situated on the side of the hill, above the red sands, and another of a similar description lies within South Port. Upon the whole, the places of sepulture for Gibraltar afford little cause for suspicion at present. The depositing of bodies within the Spanish church, which was so common a practice fifty years ago, that Colonel James says, "all the Roman Catholics were buried there,"

* See *Medico-Chirurgical Transactions*, vol. v., page 311; and *London Medical Repository*, vol. i., p. 369.

is now discontinued. Nothing but the quantity of lime thrown over the bodies, could have prevented the most dangerous consequences resulting from this practice. It is now so rare to deposit a body in the church, that a thousand dollars were lately paid by the family of a Spanish gentlemen for permission to do so.

The streets of Gibraltar, which were formerly in a most deplorable state, are now well paved, lighted, and cleansed, and extensive improvements are daily going on. Many of the narrow streets have been widened, several alleys entirely removed, and free ventilation promoted by all possible means.

The gross revenue collected in the garrison for several recent years was, so far as I can ascertain,—1821, 29,044*l.*; 1823, 32,410*l.*; 1825, 44,381*l.*; 1826, 45,786*l.*; 1827, 42,511*l.*; 1828, 39,862*l.*; 1829, 34,460*l.*; 1830, 30,841*l.*; 1831, 29,594*l.*; 1832, 32,703*l.*; 1833, 32,982*l.*; 1834, 30,694*l.*; 1835,

The mode in which this revenue is raised is thus stated in the report of the Colonial Committee of Inquiry, in 1830.

Abstract of the Revenue of Gibraltar.—Duty on wines, 4,648*l.*; license fees, 742*l.*; commutation license fees, 117*l.*; wharfage fees on all wines landed, 263*l.*; duty on spirits, 8,715*l.*; rent of tavern licenses, 1,976*l.*; do. of wine-house licenses, 3,587*l.*; licenses for retail wine and spirit stores, 158*l.*; do. for billiard tables, 269*l.*; licenses for eating houses, 8*l.*; auction fees, 1,924*l.*: ground rents, and rents for King's houses, 4,110*l.*; pratique fees, 2,661*l.*; secretary's fees, 2,445*l.*; court fees, 1,609*l.*; fees on permits from town major's office, 526*l.*; registration fees, 209*l.*; one moiety of seizures, 2*l.*; rent of market stalls, 193*l.*; sale of unserviceable revenue materials, 198*l.* Total (exclusive of shillings) 34,460*l.*

Of course the colonial revenues of this settlement are not adequate to its expenses as a military post and maritime station; the funds contributed by Great Britain are thus stated by the Colonial Revenue Committee, in 1829, (shillings excluded) ordnance, 47,480*l.*; general staff, 985*l.*; garrison staff, 1,869*l.*; medical do, 1,327*l.*; troops-service, companies of six regiments, 105,754*l.*; Commissariat, 70,083*l.* (8,600 was extraor-

dinary on account of fever); supplies for commissariat, 2,237.; medical stores, 237*l.*; stationary, 584*l.*: total, 230,560*l.*—*Deduct*, stoppages from the troops for their rations, 35,487*l.*; total expenditure in 1829, 195,073*l.* This expenditure out of the revenue of Great Britain has since been reduced—as I find that the disbursements from the military chest, from the 1st January, 1832, to the 31st March, 1833, amounted to 172,905*l.*, and the reductions are still going on.

In the Ordnance estimates for 1835-36, the charges are—

Ordinary.—Storekeeper, 1, 660*l.*; deputy do. 1, 350*l.*; clerks, 6, 804*l.*; total, No. 8, 1,814*l.*

Extraordinary.—Works and repairs 2,056*l.*; storekeeper's expenditure, 2,633*l.*; total extraordinary, 4,689*l.*; grand total of both, 6,503*l.*

Barracks (ordinary).—Barrack-masters, No. 2, 403*l.*; barrack-sergeants, No. 6, 275*l.*; total, No. 8, charge 678*l.*

Barracks (extraordinary).—Building and repairs, 4,110*l.*; barrack-master's expenditure, 767*l.*; total, 4,877*l.*; grand total, 5,555*l.*

Civil Establishments for the year 1834 is thus stated:—civil establishments, 16,751*l.*; contingencies, 1,234*l.*; judicial, 2,630*l.*; contingencies, 83*l.*; ecclesiastical, 447*l.*; miscellaneous, 3,768*l.*; pensions, 4,537*l*; total, 29,452*l.*; (exclusive of shillings). 3,600*l.* of the pensions have been granted, and are payable in England.

The total expense of the settlement may be estimated at less than 200,000*l.* per annum, of which 30,000*l.* and upwards is raised in the garrison, as before shewn; but with the system of retrenchment now in operation, the charge on the revenues of Great Britain will not, I should suppose, exceed 150,000*l.* per annum—a trifling sum when compared with the importance of such a political, commercial, and military station as Gibraltar.

Wharfage Toll.—On all wines and spirits, strong waters or cordials, landed or introduced into the garrison, per butt, 4*s.* 4*d.*: one moiety of which to be remitted as drawback on re-exportation. On all tobacco landed or introduced into the

garrison, 4½*d.* per cwt. or per hogshead, 4*s.* 4*d.*; one moiety of which to be remitted as drawback on re-exportation. In case of dispute as to weight, to be weighed at the expense of the merchant.

Duties on Wines.—On all wines consumed in taverns, wine houses, canteens or other public houses, per gallon, 4*d.*; gauging do. do. 0¼*d.*; total per gallon 4¼*d.*

Spirits, Strong Waters and Cordials, intended for consumption in the Garrison.—For every gallon of such spirits, strong waters or cordials, of any strength not exceeding the strength of proof by Sykes' Hydrometer, and so in proportion for any greater strength than the strength of proof, and for any greater or less quantity than a gallon, 2*s.* 2*d.*; gauging fee per gallon, 0½*d.*; total per gallon, 2*s.* 2½. A proportion of six gallons of spirits to each pipe of wine is allowed free of duty for the purpose of infusion, under the superintendence of an officer belonging to the revenue department.

Storage on Wines and Spirits.—On every botasso or large butt, 5 rs. or 1*s.* 10*d.*; on every pipe, 4 rs. or 1*s.* 5¼*d.*; do. hogshead, 2 rs. or 8¾*d.*; do. quarter cask, 1 r. or 4¼*d.*; do. 18 gallon barrel, 10 qts. or 2¾*d.*; do. Demijohn, 10 qts. or 2¾*d.*; do. hamper containing 54 bottles, 2 rs. or 8¾*d.*; do. case containing 12 do. 8 qts. or 2¼*d*; do. do. 72 do. 2 rs. or 8¾*d.*

Auction Fees.—On all goods sold by auction, allowing ½ per cent. to the auctioneer, 2½ per cent.

Weighing Fees.—On all spices per cwt. 4¼*d.*; oil and other fine merchandize per do. 2¾*d.*; coarse goods per cwt. 1*d.*; grain, and articles of measurement per fanega, 0½*d.*

Duties and Fees on Licenses and other Police Matters.—*Fees on Documents relating to Crown property and issued from the Crown Land Office.*—Original grant of ground under seal on paper, 6*l.* 18*s.* 8*d.*; transfer or partition or confirmation of ditto, 3*l.* 9*s.* 4*d.*; approval of a deed of mortgage, 3*l.* 9*s.* 4*d.*; new lease, 6*l.* 18*s.* 8*d.*

Casual Police Fees.—Travelling passport, 4*s.* 4*d.*; bond, of whatever nature, 17*s.* 4*d.*; marriage license, 3*l.* 9*s.* 4*d.*

Duties and Fees on Licenses paid annually in advance.—Tobacconist license, 17*s.* 4*d.*; porter do. 4*s.* 4*d.*; hawker do. 1*l.* 6*s.*: broker do. 3*l.* 9*s.* 4*d.*; truck cart do. 1*l.* 6*s.*; box cart do. 17*s.* 4*d.*; eating houses, 4*l.* 6*s.* 8*d.*

Duties and Fees on Licenses paid quarterly in advance.—Tavern licenses per diem, 4*s.* 4*d.*; billiard table do. do. 4*s.* 4*d.*; retail wine and spirit store do. 6*s.* 6*d.*; wine house, 6*s.* 6*d.*

Shipping Duties.—These are now levied on ships and vessels arriving at, touching at, or having communication with the town, territory, shipping or anchorage of Gibraltar, and collected and received in pursuance of the order in Council

before referred to, in lieu of the quarantine rates previously levied.

For every square-rigged ship, having three masts, *2l.* 3*s.* 4*d.*; for every brig, 1*l.* 14*s.* 8*d.*; for every schooner, sloop, xebeque, mistico, galliot, or other the like kind of fore-and-aft rigged vessel, 1*l.* 1*s.* 8*d.*; and for every small coasting vessel, 17*s.* 4*d.* And, in addition to each of the foregoing rates, a further duty, when the ship or vessel is liable to quarantine, of 8*s.* 8*d.* For every day's attendance by a health guard, when embarked, 4*s.* 4*d.*; for every visit by a health guard to a vessel in quarantine, *2s.* *2d.*; for every day's attendance by a health guard, in superintending the discharge of a vessel in quarantine, 8*s.* 8*d.*; for every bill of health, 4*s.* 4*d.*; for every endorsement on a bill of health, 4*s.* 4*d.*

COMMERCE.* The trade of Gibraltar has been of the utmost value to England during her wars, and it is still of considerable importance. Shortly after its capture in 1704, the settlement was wisely made a free port by Queen Ann, and it soon became a most valuable entrepot for the distribution of British manufactures to the Barbary states, and to the different countries bordering on the Mediterranean. Progressively increasing, Gibraltar became at length the centre of commerce, which, considering the number of inhabitants, was perhaps without its equal in the world; an idea of the extent to which it was carried may be judged from the fact that in one year the value of British manufactured goods imported into Gibraltar direct from England, and *exclusive* of colonial produce was nearly £3,000,000 sterling! And during the last war it is important to add, that Gibraltar was the most abundant and never failing source for the supply of the British army with cash. Various circumstances have occurred to diminish the trade of Gibraltar; among the most prominent are the creation of a free port at Cadiz, the establishment of manufactories in the eastern parts of Spain, and the various royal orders of the Spanish Government, which place Gibraltar almost in a state of commercial non-intercourse with Spain, under the plea of preventing smuggling into the pro-

* Shipping Inwards in 1834—from

Great Britain.		Brit. Colonies.		United States.		Foreign.		Total.		
No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.	Men.
170	24,412	46	79,79	67	14,154	1,963	146,326	2,246	192,871	20,308

The chief articles imported were tobacco, 5,056 hds.; wines, 866,471 gal.; spirits, 115,713 gal.

vinces adjacent to the fortress. Yet with all these disadvantages, the trade of Gibraltar is still worth annually upwards of a million sterling;* and there is more probability of increase than decrease. The following table will convey some idea of the trade of the port for the last 15 years.

Cotton and Woollen Goods, &c. Exported from the United Kingdom to Gibraltar, 1820 to 1831.

Years.	Cottons, White or Plain.	Printed or Dressed.	Hosiery and Small Wares, Declared Value.	Twist and Yarn.	Total Value of Cottons.	Woollen Manufactures, Declared Value.	Grand Total of Cotton and Woollen Manufactures.	Declared Value of all other Articles.	Tons of Shipping from Great Britain.		
									British.	Foreign.	Total.
	Yards.	Yards.	£	lbs.	£	£	£				
1820	6670756	7849076	21476	61182	848940	98913	947853		29775	5551	35326
1821	5657362	7012146	24025	31762	716028	127131	843159		16884	389	17273
1822	9257810	12564351	24340	42580	1090376	193911	1284287		22468	259	22727
1823	5162335	8811514	21328	64467	636834	138071	774905		23036	2071	25107
1824	10372024	10359280	19542	131635	961761	160259	1122020		19557	1539	21096
1825	6604838	7539984	14118	78830	564964	90781	655745		17813	3896	21709
1826	6873599	6379692	14039	119762	516709	60975	577684		16962	1817	18779
1827	9221816	7981075	19223	105262	621230	72844	694074		18973	1702	20675
1828	9763381	8744359	22038	53832	666232	71863	738095		19394	628	20022
1829	6242358	3099731	10062	21873	322969	39885	362654		10191	235	10426
1830	3008355	1750307	5772	14835	146448	20730	167178		10677	968	11645
1831	6076611	3832398	6158	39196	248068	15459	263527		14349	723	15072
1832											
1833											
1834											
1835											

No Returns.

It is the duty of our Government to remonstrate with that of Spain as to the disabilities under which the commerce of Gibraltar has been placed; our cotton goods are totally prohibited from them,—ships touching at Gibraltar are treated almost as if they were infectious, and the following scale of duties levied at Barcelona on articles coming from Gibraltar and Genoa, will shew the unfair position in which our merchants are placed.

Duties paid at Barcelona on Goods imported there from Gibraltar and Genoa in Spanish Vessels.

FROM GIBRALTAR.		FROM GENOA.	
Duty on 33 barrels of copperas (copparrosa), weighing 304 cwt. .	dol. 341	Duty on 35 barrels of copperas, equal in quality to the opposite parcel, weighing 304 cwt.	dol. 221
Ditto on 25 bales of cotton, weighing 4,650 lbs.	dol. 203	Ditto on 25 bales of cotton, equal in quality to the opposite parcel, weighing 4,650 lbs.	133
		Difference	190
	Dollars 544		Dollars 544

Goods imported in foreign bottoms are subject to an extra

* In 1830, the value of produce of the United Kingdom imported was £988,234, and of Colonial produce £129,381; total, £1,117,615.

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duty of 40*s.*, and hides and other colonial articles pay in proportion.

MONIES, WEIGHTS, AND MEASURES.—Spanish currency is still much used. The effective hard dollar = 4*s.* 4*d.*; the current dollar being estimated at 2*s.* 3*d.*; hard dollars = 2*s.* 10$\frac{2}{3}$*d.*; reals and quartos of both hard and current dollars are the same, the former being = 4$\frac{1}{3}$*d.*, and the latter 1$\frac{1}{2}$*d.* Accounts are kept in current dollars (pesos) divided into eight reals of 16 quartos each; 12 reals currency = 1 cob, or hard dollar, by which goods are bought and sold, and 3 reals are considered equal to 5 Spanish reals vellon.

Gold Coins.—A doubloon is 16 dol. = 3*l.* 9*s.* 4*d.*; half do. = 1*l.* 14*s.* 8*d.*; sixteenth do. 4*s.* 4*d.* *Silver Coin*: dollar piece 4*s.* 4*d.*; half ditto, 2*s.* 2*d.*; quarter do. 1*s.* 1*d.*; Peseta, 9$\frac{3}{4}$*d.*; eighth of a dollar = 6$\frac{1}{2}$*d*; half peseta, = 5*d.* sixteenth of a dollar = 3$\frac{1}{4}$*d.*; quarter peseta = 2$\frac{1}{2}$*d.* There is also a small quantity of British silver coin. *Copper Coin:* two quarterpiece = $\frac{1}{2}$*d*; one do. $\frac{1}{4}$*d.*; chovy = $\frac{1}{8}$*d.* (Also a quantity of British copper coin.) There is no paper currency. The rate of exchange on London at 90 days sight varies from 48*d.* to 49*d.*

Weights and Measures.—Arrobe, 26 lbs. English, = 3$\frac{1}{3}$ gallons. 5 Fanegas (strake measure of wheat) or 8 Winchester bushels, or 2 heaped Fanegas of Indian corn = 4$\frac{1}{8}$ bushels. Pipe, 117 gallons, = 126 gallons English wine measure. The Spanish quintal of 100 lb. = 101$\frac{3}{4}$ lbs. English.

GENERAL VIEW.—The foregoing details sufficiently illustrate the importance of Gibraltar to Great Britain, whether it be viewed politically or commercially: by British valour it has been acquired, and by British statesmanship preserved. May the day be far distant when treachery or dissension at home shall cause this noble fortress—the protector of our flag, honour and trade, in the Mediterranean, to be neglected or contemned; for upwards of a century it has been a part and parcel of our oceanic Empire, enabling us the better to hold our footing in the Eastern part of Europe, and to wield with effect the destinies of the world.

FOR MONTGOMERY MARTIN'S HISTORY OF THE BRITISH COLONIES. VOL.V. EUROPE.

Drawn & Engraved by J.& C.Walker.

Published by James Cochrane & Cº Waterloo Place Nov. 1st 1830.

CHAPTER II.

MALTA AND GOZO.

LOCALITY—AREA—HISTORY—ACCOUNT OF THE KNIGHTS OF ST. JOHN—PHYSICAL ASPECT—GEOLOGY AND SOIL—CLIMATE—DISEASES—ANIMAL AND VEGETABLE KINGDOMS — POPULATION — HOSPITALS, SCHOOLS, RELIGION, &c. — GOVERNMENT — MILITARY DEFENCE — REVENUE AND EXPENDITURE—COMMERCE — DUTIES—IMPORTS AND EXPORTS—SHIPPING — MONIES, WEIGHTS AND MEASURES—STAPLE PRODUCTS, &c. — AND GENERAL VIEW OF THE COLONY.

MALTA and its adjacent island of Gozo, are situate between Sicily and the African Coast, in the mouth of the great bay formed by Cape Bon and Cape Razat, in the parallel of (*i. e.* Valetta, the capital) 35.54. N. and the meridian of 14.34. E., the most southerly island in Europe. Malta has been known for more than eighteen hundred years under the name of Melite or Melita, Pliny and Strabo both mentioning it under this denomination, and there is no doubt that Melita, and not an islet on the Illyrian shore of the Adriatic, was the site of St. Paul's shipwreck. It appears to have been at one period a Carthaginian colony when this singular people held such powerful sway in the Mediterranean; but whether it was the island mentioned under the appellation of Hyperia (by Homer in the Odyssey) and Ogygia is doubtful.

The Phœnicians landed, it is said, on Malta about 1,519 years before Christ, and the navigation of the Mediterranean belonging at this period to that commercial people they formed a colony there which soon rose in trade and wealth. Whether Malta was inhabited previous to the landing of the Phœnicians is doubtful; according to fabulous history it was originally tenanted by the Phæacians (qu. Phœnicians), a race of giants. After being in possession of the island for upwards of seven centuries, the Greeks, 736 years B. C. drove out the Phœnicians, settled on the island, and called it *Melitas*.

Both the Phœnicians and the Greeks, while in the possession of Malta, erected extensive buildings, and struck different coins, the relics of some of which are still extant.

About 528 years B.C. the Carthaginians disputed the dominion of Malta or Melita with the Greeks, and it was for some time divided between these two powerful nations; the latter were, however, finally compelled to abandon the island to the Carthaginians, under whose sway it grew into such magnitude and wealth as to excite the cupidity and enterprize of the Romans in the first Punic war, when it was plundered by Attilius Regulus and seized upon by Cornelius. The Romans, however, were soon expelled from the island, and only recovered it after the naval victory gained by C. Lutatius, 242 years B.C. when a peace was granted to the Carthaginians on the hard condition of their giving up to the Romans all the islands in their possession between Africa and Italy. The Romans were justly proud of their acquisition of Melita; they took every precaution to gain the attachment of the resident Greek and mixed population, permitted them the continuation of their ancient customs, made it a municipium, allowing the inhabitants to be governed by their own laws, under a pro-prætor dependant on the prætorship of Sicily.

The commerce and manufactures of the island were sedulously encouraged, the cotton and linen cloths of Melita were so famed for their fineness and the skill with which they were prepared, as to be regarded at Rome as an article of luxury. Great attention was paid to improving and beautifying the settlement, and the merchants and the sailors were then wont to repair to the temples to offer incense to the protecting gods of the island and its trade. On the division of the Roman empire, the island of Malta fell to Constantine, but the feuds of religious dissensions occupying all parties, the Romans in in their colonies as well as at home felt the desolating inroads of barbarism; the Vandals seized upon Sicily in 454 A.D., and next took possession of Malta, whence they were driven ten years after by the Goths. Under the Goths and Vandals the commerce of Malta perished; it was, however, partially re-

vived under the reign of Justinian, who sent Belisarius to wrest Africa from the Vandals; Belisarius landed in Malta A. D. 553, and reunited it to the remnant of the empire, but from not being allowed the immunities previously granted by its former masters, the island never entirely recovered its ancient splendour.

Malta became now a prey to feuds and dissensions; and for three centuries from the reign of Justinian we are ignorant of the events which mark its history: about the year 870 A. D. the inhabitants called in the Arabs; but they were driven out the same year by the bravery of the Greeks, who from thence remained undisturbed masters for 34 years; but the Arabs again descended in great force, exterminated the Greeks, sold their wives and children for slaves, and established a government, dependent upon the Emir of Sicily. The name of Melitas was then by the Arabs corrupted into that of Malta. To supply the deficiency of taxes which the Arabs would not levy on the Maltese, the former fitted out piratical cruisers, fortified the city of Notabile, built a fortress on the site of the present castle of St. Angelo, and enriched Malta with the plunder acquired on the sea. The Arabs, in their turn, were also driven out of Malta by the Normans, A. D. 1090, under Count Roger, who established the popular council, which was composed of clergy, nobles, and people freely elected. The island was afterwards given up to the Germans, on account of the marriage between Constance, heiress of Sicily and Henry VI. son of the Emperor Frederick Barbarossa. Malta was erected into a county and marquisate, but its trade was now totally ruined, and for a considerable period it remained solely a fortified garrison.

Malta remained for 72 years subject to the Emperors of Germany, and Charles of Anjou, brother of Louis IX. King of France on becoming King of Sicily, made himself master of the island. On the change of sovereigns in Sicily, after the well known affair of the Sicilian vespers, Malta continued faithful to the French, but was soon conquered by the King of Arragon, who, as well as (his successors in the supremacy

in 1414) the Kings of Castile ceded it in title of fief to some favourite of the monarch or servant of the crown.

The Maltese at this time beheld themselves twice mortgaged for sums lent to their princes; they, therefore, always jealous of their liberty, made a noble effort to retrieve themselves from this thraldom, by twice paying 30,000 florins of gold (a large sum in those days), for which the island was pawned. King Alphonzo, therefore, A. D. 1428, declared and promised that in future Malta and Gozo should never be separated from the kingdom of Sicily. Alphonzo permitted also the inhabitants, in case of a breach of promise, to oppose him by force, without such conduct being deemed rebellious.

Charles V., with a view towards commanding the Mediterranean, and to secure the coast of Sicily, became master of Malta; and aware of its great advantages, and that he might be saved the expense of its garrison, while at the same time he might prevent his European enemies from making a descent on the possession, located the order of St. John of Jerusalem at Malta, who being driven from their principal place of residence, Rhodes, were glad to accept the aid of a powerful prince, who thus, in 1530 A. D., granted to the knights, in perpetual sovereignty, the islands of Malta, Gozo, and the city of Tripoli, under favourable conditions for the Maltese. And here it may be necessary to give a brief account of the origin of the Knights of St. John.

The hospital of St. John existed in Jerusalem from the reign of the Emperor Justinian, and was intended for the reception of strangers and the crowds of pilgrims who arrived from all parts to visit the Holy Sepulchre. The founder thereof was Peter Gerard, a native of Provence, who in 1099, A. D. formed the association of a few charitable persons to relieve the sick, and took up their abode in a house distinguished by the name of the Hospital of St. John, and hence termed '*Hospitaller brothers of St. John the Baptist at Jerusalem.*' They were invested with the regular habit of the St. Augustine order, and took the three vows—of chastity, obedidience and poverty, before the Patriarch of Jerusalem, under

whose immediate authority they remained for some time, until Pope Paschal II., by a bull dated Feb. 15, 1113, appointed Gerard, 'Provost and Guardian of the Hospital of St. John of Jerusalem,' the lands and donations of which latter, as well as all that should in future belong to it, were enfranchised from tithes; by the Bull it was also provided that the successor of Gerard was to be freely elected by the brothers. The successor of Gerard (Raymond Dupuis), extended the design of the hospitallers, and instead of being merely comforters of the sick and poor, they began to afford the pilgrims and strangers a safe escort from the Holy City to their own homes, the country from Jerusalem to the first port where it was possible to embark for Europe being inhabited by the opponents of christianity, who used every means to destroy the followers of that faith. The prayer of the Hospitallers that they might become a military order, without, however, relinquishing their religious habits, was granted; the Patriarch of Jerusalem armed them himself, and they took an oath before him to defend the holy sepulchre to the last drop of their blood, and to combat the 'infidels' wherever they should meet them. On the conclusion of the ceremony, the Knights of St. John offered their services to the King of Jerusalem, and afterwards, with the Knights Templars, became the principal support of that ruler, always however considering themselves as auxiliaries, and not as subjects. The order was now re-organized, the Master's Assistants formed into a chapter, or council, and rules and statutes instituted and sanctioned by the Pope. The crusading spirit of the age lent strength, wealth and lustre, to the new order; donations were bestowed on it from all parts; and in consequence of the numerous individuals from different countries who joined the association, the Knights agreed to divide themselves into seven *languages*. The French having founded the order, were the most numerous; the three first *languages* being those of Provence, Auvergne, and France; the next four those of Italy, Arragon, England and Germany; in process

of time Castile was added to the original seven languages, and the Anglo-Bavarian was substituted for that of England.

It would be beyond my limits and object to enter into a detail of the rules and progress of the order; suffice it to say, that the principal nobility in Christendom were soon found to compose its main parts; the order being divided into three sections according to their birth, rank and functions, viz.; 1st, the Knights of Justice (which was only open to the descendants of an ancient nobility); 2nd, Religious Chaplains and Priests of Obedience; and 3rd, Serving Brothers: and it is on record as one of the singular phenomena of that period, that the highest ranks in Europe sent their finest children to Jerusalem, to be brought up under the tuition of the knights, previous to enlisting under their banners.

The Hospitallers of St. John remained in the Holy Land until 1289, A. D., when they were compelled to follow the fortunes of the Latin Christians, and retreat from Palestine. The order remained some time at Cyprus, but having captured Rhodes, in 1307, from some Greek rebels and Mahometan corsairs, the Hospitallers removed thither, and soon began to recover from the depressed state into which they had fallen, and which was as much owing to their fierce contests with the Knights Templars as with the Infidels. At Rhodes the order had still to contend with powerful enemies. Bashaw Mischa Palæologus, a renegado Christian, besieged Rhodes in 1480, with a fleet of 160 ships, and an army of 100,000 men; and after a siege of 89 days, retired with a loss of 9,000 slain and 15,000 wounded. The Turks, determined on the expulsion of the order from Rhodes, landed on the island, 26th June, 1522, with a force of 150,000 men, who were presently followed by the Emperor Solyman with additional forces. L'Isle Adam, the Grand Master, placing himself at the head of 600 knights, supported by 4,500 regular troops, together with some citizen soldiers, resolved to die in defence of the order. Aid from the European sovereigns was sought in vain; the Pope and other potentates

contenting themselves with the gift of prayers; nevertheless the gallant Knights withstood a six months siege from the overwhelming Turkish army, until, owing to treachery from one of their own body, their gunpowder was exhausted; and after 80,000 Turks (according to the confession of the Ottomans), had fallen before the besieged, and an equal number had died of sickness, the Janissaries entered the city, and the few Knights who had survived this murderous attack, together with 4,000 inhabitants, quitted Rhodes to seek another asylum. A home, after some wandering, was given to these gallant men by Charles V. (October 26th, 1530); and that home, as before stated, was Malta, then in a state of wretched destitution. The Knights soon changed the face of the island; churches, hospitals and infirmaries, were speedily erected; a regular, and indeed magnificent city, built upon a rude and barren rock; and formidable batteries constructed, so as to render their new home the strongest place in Christendom.

The present enlightened and deservedly esteemed Governor of Malta, Major-General Sir Frederick Ponsonby, has been so obliging as to transmit to me from Malta, among other valuable documents, the following authentic information relative to this singular military-religious order. The order was composed of eight languages.

	Number of Commanderies.	Estimated Value.	Paid into the Public Treasury.
	£. sterling.	£. sterling.	£. sterling.
France had three, Provence	249	160340	58040
France had three, Auvergne			
France			
Spain two, Arragon	75	61517	27145
Spain two, Castille			
Portugal	78	55598	918
Italy	192	60208	23533
Anglo-Bavaria, including Germany	54	34319	6651
Total	648	368982	124556

This Return is made out from the best sources that can be

obtained. It must, however, only be considered as approximative. Previous to the Reformation in England, the Order possessed a considerable income in Great Britain.*

Besides the Receipts arising from the Commanderies, there were trifling taxes levied in the Island, chiefly of Customs and Excise, which, together with the rent of landed property, amounted to about 30,000*l.* a year. The revenue of the Grand Master was about 35,000*l.* a year, arising from one Commandery in each of the Priories, and certain monopolies in Malta. The average annual income and expenditure of the Treasury of Malta, between the years 1779 and 1788, is stated to have been:—Income 136,141*l.* Expenditure, 126,186*l.*†

The Grand Master was elected by the Members of the Order resident in Malta, who had the right of voting. The third day after the death of a Grand Master was always fixed upon for the election of his successor; the eight languages which composed the body of the Order assembled in their respective chapels in the church of St. John in Valetta, and each named three knights who were to vote for the whole. These 24 Electors retired into the chamber of the conclave, and named a triumvirate consisting of a Knight, a Chaplain, and a serving Brother of Arms, whom they invested with the power of election. The Grand Master had not only a military and regular authority over all the Members of the Order, but sovereign power and all regal rights over his subjects. The legislative power resided in the Council and Chapter of the Order, in which the Grand Master had only two votes; but he alone could convoke the former, and no subject could be discussed in the latter but what was proposed by himself.

The title given him by the King of France was "*tres cher et tres aimé cousin*, by other Princes, "*Eminentissime Princeps.*" The following was the style of all Public Acts:—

* There is, in the British Museum, a Court Roll of the Possessions of the Order; Tanner's 'Notitia Monastica' also gives information on the subject.

† The expenditure of the Order in the Island was at least £400,000 per annum.

"*Dei Gratia Sacræ Domus Hospitalis Sancti Joannis Hierosolymitani et Militaris Ordinis Sancti Sepulcri Dominici, et Ordinis Sancti Antonii Viennensis Magister Humilis Pauperumque Jesu Christi Custos.*"

The Order was divided into three classes:—First, the Knights of Justice;—Secondly, the Chaplains;—Thirdly, the Serving Brothers of Arms. They all had votes in their different languages, and possessed Commanderies. The Maltese, a few of whom were members of the Order, were excluded from voting at the Election of the Grand Master.

There were besides attached to the Order, persons who were called Brothers de Stage or Donats; they wore the demi-cross. This was a distinction given to those who had merited reward in having served well in subaltern situations.

In a Military Calendar of the Order for the year 1742, it is stated that there were 2132 Knights of Justice attached to the Order, and 283 Chaplains and Brothers of Arms, and there were 2500 slaves belonging to the Order. The number of the Knights of Justice present in Valetta at the time of the arrival of the French under Buonaparte was about 600.

The following is the succession of the Grand Masters.

	Date of Death.	Country.		Date of Death.	Country.
L'Isle Adam	1534	French.	Redin	1660	Spanish.
Peter Dupont	1538	Ditto.	Clermont	1660	French.
Didier de St. Jaille	1536	Ditto.	Raphael Cottoner	1663	Spanish.
John D'Omedes	1553	Spanish.	Nicolas Cottoner	1680	Ditto.
Claude de la Sangle	1557	French.	Caraffa	1690	Neapolitan.
La Valette	1568	Ditto.	Adrian de Wignacourt	1697	French.
Peter de Monte	1571	Italian.	Raymond Perellos	1720	Spanish.
Dela Cassiere	1582	French.	Zondadary	1722	Italian.
De Verdale	1595	Ditto.	Ant. Manoel de Vilhena	1736	Portuguese
Martin Gargez	1601	Spanish.	Raymond Despuig	1741	Majorca.
Wignacourt	1622	French.	Emanuel Pinto	1773	Portuguese
Mendez Vasconcellas	1623	Portuguese.	Francis Ximenes	1775	Spanish.
Anthony de Paule	1636	French.	Emanuel de Rohan	1797	French.
Lascaris	1657	Italian.	Hompesch	*	German.

* Surrendered to the French Republic 12th June, 1798.

With this interposition—the history of Malta may now be resumed.

The Knights of St. John of Jerusalem were scarcely settled in Malta, until they rendered good service to Charles V., and indeed to all Europe by their frequent chastisement and repulsion of the African Corsairs. The Turks in revenge attacked Malta, but were compelled to retire, not however before they had carried off 6000 natives from Gozo. Subsequent to this attack, the Knights made great efforts to strengthen the fortifications; Fort St. Elmo was built and named in honour of one of the towers of a similar name that defended the entrance to Rhodes, and Fort St. Michael was built upon Mount St. Julien; knights, burgesses, and peasants relieved each other, by turns, in completing the stupendous works which still exist for the defence of Malta; the prizes taken by the far famed gallies of the Order contributed to enrich the island, and the Grand Master, La Sangle, expended his wealth in adding to its strength and beauty, in gratitude for which, Fort St. Michael was then changed to the name of Isle La Sangle.

La Valette, one of the most active Grand Maters, was raised by the knights to the Grand Mastership 17th August, 1557; while this intrepid and able man governed, Solyman attacked Malta with a Turkish fleet of 159 vessels with oars, containing 30,000 land troops, Janissaries and Spahis, and a considerable number of store ships conveyed artillery, horses, &c. The Turks landed at St. Thomas' Creek, (Ladderport), La Valette had but 700 knights, and 8500 of regular and militia Maltese soldiers; nevertheless, 1500 Turks fell on their first landing. Solyman commenced a vigorous land attack on St. Elmo Castle, (24th May, 1565), with ten 80 pounders, 2 culverins, 60 pounders, and an enormous basilise carrying stone balls of 160 lbs. weight, to which was added at the same time a furious cannonade from the Turkish ships with long culverins. The castle had but 300 men for its defence. The Turks attempted to storm the ravelins, which cost them a loss of 3,000 men, and the Order lost 20 knights and 100 soldiers;

the siege still continued; La Valette cheered the spirits and stimulated the drooping courage of the small band in St. Elmo; at night he sent boats to convey away the wounded, and throw in reinforcements; the Turks persisted in their desperate efforts, and suffered much in their attacks from hoops covered with wool and cotton steeped in brandy and oil, salpetre, &c. and then thrown lighted on them from the battlements. The Bashaws who had charge of the siege, ashamed at the resistance offered by a single castle, determined on a general assault on the 16th June; the night previous to which was spent in one continued and tremendous cannonade which razed the wall even to the rock on which the castle was built. The Turkish army entered the ditch (which they had nearly filled up) to the sound of martial music, and the assault commenced with terrific fury on either side, the Turks being determined to revenge their past defeats, and the knights intent only on the defence of their honour, which was far dearer to them than life: the batteries at Fort St. Angelo, La Sangle, and the Burgh (Borgo), continued an incessant fire on the besiegers, and the fiery hoops and combustibles thrown from the walls, spread death and terror around; after an assault of six hours, the Turks gave way with a loss of 2,000 men, while 17 knights were killed in the breach, and 300 Maltese perished or were disabled. La Valette instantly threw a reinforcement of 150 volunteers into the castle, to prevent which, in future, the Turks cut off all communication between the Burgh and the castle, by means of extensive entrenchments, at which they worked night and day.

On the 21st June another grand assault was made on St. Elmo by the whole Turkish army, who were three times repulsed, and as often with the most sanguinary imprecations returned to the charge; numbers of the knights perished, and the close of the day alone checked for a time this unequal contest. The heroic defenders, as soon as night closed, sent an expert swimmer to cross the Port and inform the Grand Master of their deplorable situation; five large boats were

instantly armed with knights, anxious to join their aid to that of their wounded and exhausted companions; but all their efforts to get to the Castle were fruitless. The knights in St. Elmo seeing all relief hopeless, determined to perish in its defence; they took the Sacrament during the night, and having tenderly embraced each other, returned to their posts to meet the death which was now inevitable; those whose wounds prevented their walking were carried in chairs to the breaches, and with swords grasped in their feeble hands, had a death-like energy given to their expiring strength. At day break the Turks returned to the assault, shouting with the assurance of victory; they were met as before with invincible courage; the Maltese vied with the knights in heroism, and those who were unable to stand, continued still to fight. After four hours' assault, there remained but 60 men to defend the breach; L'Amraude, the commanding knight, finding the Turks on the point of forcing it, called to his aid some soldiers, who, till that moment, had been placed on the cavalier before the fort; the Bashaw, finding the breach thus reinforced, pretended to retreat, but it was only to take possession of the cavalier; the besieged took advantage of this respite to bind up their wounds, in order that they might be able yet a little while longer to continue the combat which the Turks returned to at 11 o'clock with redoubled fury.

The Janissaries having gained the top of the cavalier made choice of those they wished to destroy; most of the knights were thus slain; and the few remaining soldiers and survivors perished in the breach; the terrible assault having only ceased when not one knight or Maltese was alive. The Bashaw entered the castle, but found none to wreak his fury on, all its noble defenders, namely, 300 knights, and 1,300 Maltese, were slain; while he himself had lost 8,000 of the flower of his Janissaries. "What resistance," exclaimed the Turkish commander, looking towards the Burgh and St. Angelo, "may we expect from the parent when the child, small as it is, has cost us our bravest soldiers!" Mustapha Bashaw had then, as an intimidation, the breasts of the knights cut open;

their hearts torn out; and as an insult to the Christians, their bodies placed in the shape of a cross, then covering them with their *soubrevest*, and fastening them to planks, they were threwn into the sea, that the tide might carry them to the burgh; La Valette, in order to teach the Bashaw that he could make reprisals, had the Turkish prisoners put to death, and loading the cannon with their still bleeding heads, fired them into the enemy's camp.

Throughout the siege of Fort St. Elmo the Grand Master never ceased importuning the Viceroy of Sicily for his promised supplies, but in vain; and seeing relief now hopeless, the knights determined on a desperate resistance, and that they would give no quarter. The Bashaw sent to the Burgh proposals of surrender, but La Valette threatened to hang the Envoy who dared to make such a request, and, when returning the aged Turk through their armed forces, shewed him the different fortifications, telling him, 'On these ramparts we mean to surrender to the Bashaw, and we reserve the deep trenches to bury him and his Janissaries.'

The Turks immediately raised nine batteries against La Sangle, St. Michael, and the Burgh; 70 large cannon began to batter in breach, and where the rock was too hard to open trenches, walls of stone and sand were raised; the grand effort being to block up the castle, so that there should be no external connection either by sea or land; before, however, the passage by land was entirely closed, 40 knights and some other gentlemen of different nations, favoured by a thick fog, landed in the Black Stone Creek, and safely reached the burgh. It was primarily endeavoured to reduce La Sangle and its castle, and they were constantly fired upon from a battery erected on Coradin heights, which commanded both.

The besieged in La Sangle being cut off from all communication, except by the sea, the Turks proposed to transport boats by land from Port Marsa Musceit to the Grand Port, it being impossible for them to pass any other way without going under the batteries of Fort St. Angelo, which would

have immediately sunk them. A deserter from the Turks revealed this daring plot, and the besieged took new precautions to defend the coast line of their works; above all things it was necessary to prevent the Turks approaching the walls of Fort St. Michael; a stoccado, as it was called, was therefore constructed from the Coradin rock to the end of the island, by fixing stakes in the sea, fastened together by iron rings, through which passed a long chain.

When the water was too deep, or the bottom of the rock too hard to drive in the stakes, the want was supplied by nailing together long sail yards and masts of ships; other stoccadoes were made to prevent the enemy coming near the coast; the whole of the works being carried on by night, when the Turkish artillery had ceased to play upon the batteries. At the end of nine nights the Bashaw was astonished to see such efficient defences raised to the passage of his boats and the landing of the troops; he sent, therefore, in the night, some good Turkish swimmers, with hatchets in their girdles to cut down the palisades; the noise thus made alarmed the garrison, who finding the shot from above did not reach the Turks, some Maltese seamen threw themselves into the water with swords in their teeth, and swam to the stoccadoes, and repulsed the Turks with considerable loss. The Turks next day returned to the charge, and fastened cables and ropes to the palisades, which were almost instantly cut across by the Maltese swimmers. These singular contests were now laid aside, and the whole power of the Turkish batteries directed towards effecting a breach in the advanced works of the Burgh and Fort St. Michael, which, however, when accomplished, the Bashaw was unwilling to assault until the arrival of Haseen, the Viceroy of Algiers, who landed with a strong reinforcement of skilful soldiers.

The Algerines were commanded by the young son of Barbarossa, who, despising the Castles, entreated that the Bashaw would let him carry them at once sword in hand; the permission was given,—a destructive fire was opened from

the Turkish batteries;—all their slaves, &c. conveyed a number of gallies across Mount Sceberras and Marsa Musceit post, and having set them afloat, they were manned by the Algerines, and commanded by an able Greek renegado named Candelissa. Two thousand picked Turkish soldiers were added to the Algerine storming army, who advanced to the assault, preceded by Mahometan priests, with the Koran in their hands, and performing the rites of their religion while imprecating the curses of heaven on the Christians, and promising eternal rewards to those who might fall in the praiseworthy object of accomplishing their utter destruction. The object of the Algerines was to make a bridge of the stoccadoes themselves, for which purpose they brought planks which, however, proved too short to reach the shore. The Maltese batteries poured destruction on the boats of their antagonists, one volley alone killing 400 Turks. Again and again the Moslems, urged by the stimulus of religious fanaticism, returned to the attack; the Algerines at length reached the shore, where death met them in various forms, and Candelissa, their general, seeing them stagger and inclined to retreat, ordered the boats to a distance that flight might be cut off.

Despair then added to courage; the entrenchments were approached with escalading ladders, and after a most sanguinary contest of five hours, the Algerines reached the top of the entrenchment and planted thereon seven standards; the knights though reduced to a very small number, no sooner perceived the standards of Islam floating on their batteries, than they returned to the contest with reinvigorated energy, and being aided by a body of resolute pike-men, which the grand master had sent to their assistance, they charged the Algerines and Turks with a fury which nothing could withstand;—the standards were soon gained and uprooted; their defenders driven sword in hand from the tops of the rampart over the parapets, those who escaped from the pike and sabre perishing of the fall. Candelissa, who had

hitherto fought bravely, gave up all for lost, and left his gallant followers to maintain a running fight, which they did until a party of the garrison incensed at their resistance, rushed out of a casement and put to death all who were unable to reach the boats, where, indeed, death awaited them from the batteries above.

In vain the discomfited besiegers threw themselves at the feet of their conquerors; they received no other answer than '*St. Elmo!*' and out of 4,000 chosen troops, scarcely 500 remained, the greater part of whom were desperately wounded. In the attack the Order lost 100 knights and secular gentlemen, and among the former was the son of the Viceroy of Sicily. A similar dreadful carnage to the foregoing took place at another attack made on the breaches caused by the Turkish artillery on the side next Burmola and the Castle of St. Michael, but the assailants were repulsed. The Bashaw, regardless of what quantity of life he sacrificed, so that Malta were reduced, resolved to harass the knights by constant renewed attacks; he, therefore, although the combat had lasted five hours, replaced the loss of the Algerines by some Janissaries recently sent by the Grand Seignior for this express purpose. Against these fresh troops, anxious to combat the Christians, the jaded and almost exhausted knights were compelled to renew the fearful struggle, and in the desperate onslaught the chosen Janissaries were repelled with, however, a loss to the Christians of more than 40 knights and 200 soldiers: by such repeated losses the Bashaw hoped finally to cut off the whole of the Christians; a sort of raised bridge was constructed for the besiegers to mount to the assault; twice during the night the besieged vainly attempted to burn it, and an effort by day cost the lives of La Valette's own nephew, and several other brave men: a well directed cannonade at last accomplished the destruction of this singular piece of mechanism. The Bashaw, fearing the Grand Seignior might attribute these repeated failures to some fault in his conduct, called an extraordinary council of war, in

which it was resolved, that the Bashaw (Mustapha), in conjunction with the Viceroy of Algiers, should continue to storm La Sangle,—that Admiral Pilai should besiege the Grand Burgh and the Castle of St. Angelo—and that Candelissa should remain at sea with 80 gallies to prevent any relief from without. In pursuance of this resolution, the Turkish artillery kept up a constant fire against the posts allotted to them, and on the 2d August the Bashaw attempted to storm Fort St. Michael; the assault lasted six hours, and after five different attacks, the Turks were repulsed. After an interval of five days, another assault took place, which lasted four hours: on this memorable occasion, a feint was made by way of deceiving the besiegers to attack the Castile bastion; the Janissaries then advanced to the real assault, mounting the entrenchments over the dead and dying bodies of their comrades; the Christian women, and even their children joined in the defence; some were employed in conveying refreshments to their husbands, fathers, brothers, &c.;—others conveyed stones and earth to repair the breaches; and many boldly mixed among the combatants, throwing fire works, melted pitch and boiling water and oil into the middle of the Turks, who fought with firmness, and destroyed many of these heroic females.

The Bashaw, sabre in hand, headed his troops; he even slew with his own hand two Janissaries, who, pressed by the knights, had thrown themselves from the top to the bottom of the breach, but at the very moment when the Grand Master trembled for the safety of the fort, Mustapha sounded a retreat; the reason of which was that the Governor of the old city having made a sally, took possession of the Turkish hospital, which he pillaged and burnt; those who were fortunate enough to escape fled to Mustapha, declaring that their enemies were the advanced guard of the Sicilian troops who had just landed; the Bashaw, therefore, fearing the effect of a general consternation among his men, drew off from the attack to meet the imaginary enemy.

Throughout the month of August the Turks continued almost daily these terrific attacks, and nothing but the testimony of contemporary historians could persuade posterity that such a handful as the Christians were now reduced to, could withstand the furious assaults of thousands. Simultaneous attacks were made by the Bashaw and Admiral, and on one of these occasions (20th August), Mustapha attacked at the head of 80,000 men! the greater number armed with a kind of morions, ball-proof, which reached as low as the shoulders; these however were thrown aside by the wearers, and the usual repulse followed.

The Turks in the meantime pursued the most extensive mining operations, with a view of blowing up the whole of the fortress, but while making preparations for a final grand attack, the Viceroy of Sicily arrived on the island with reinforcements, and the Turks after one battle precipitately raised the siege and fled to their ships, after leaving 25,000 of their bravest troops among the dead. Thus ended the siege of Malta, in which 260 Knights, with more than 7,000 soldiers and inhabitants fell victims in the cause of Christianity.

I have been rather minute in detailing this chivalrous event, because it may teach to Great Britain the value of such a possession in war time; and because I feel assured that on the breaking out of another European conflict, every effort will be made to destroy the English power in the Mediterranean.

The intelligence of the raising of the siege spread over every Christian community. Rejoicings took place in Sicily, Italy, Spain, &c. and presents and congratulations poured in for the truly ennobled La Valette.

It became however a serious question whether the Knights should abandon Malta; they were now reduced with their followers to scarcely 600 men, the greater part of whom were wounded; La Valette however declared he would rather bury himself in the ruins which Solyman, with a new and formidable fleet, was threatening to accomplish. By a daring

plan however, which has never been fully explained, the arsenal at Constantinople was burned, together with a great number of vessels, destined for Malta; and thus the Knights received a respite which enabled them to commence the reconstruction of their fortifications.

It was at this period that the city of La Valette was built, with the aid of the princes of Europe; the Pope promised 15,000 crowns; the King of France 140,000 French livres; Philip II. granted 90,000 French livres; the King of Portugal 30,000 crusadoes, and most of the distant commanders contributed property, and stripped themselves of valuables, which they generously forwarded to La Valette, who founded this handsome and well protected city, 28th March, 1566; on which occasion various gold and silver coins, with the inscription *Melita renascens*, were scattered among the foundations.

At the battle of Lepanto (1571) in which the Turks lost 30,000 men,—their celebrated general killed, two of his sons, and 5,000 officers and soldiers taken prisoners, and 140 gallies independent of those sunk or burnt, the Maltese, as usual, distinguished themselves. In 1581 disturbances broke out in Malta, the Knights rebelled against the Grand Master, whom they deposed and imprisoned, appointing Romegas as his successor.

During the reign of Vignacourt (1601), the Order gallantly distinguished itself against Patras, Lepanto, Mahometa (on the coast of Africa), the island of Largo, Fort de Laiazzo, Corinth, &c. These repeated successes induced the Turks to attack Malta, but after landing 5,000 men, a precipitate retreat was effected.

In 1603 the Order indicated its jealousy of an infringement of its honour and rules. Charles de Brie, a natural son of Henry Duke of Lorrain, presented himself to be admitted a Knight of the German Order; and though the Empire endeavoured to compel his admittance, it was resolutely refused. In 1616, Vignacourt, among other useful works, such as the

fortifying of St. Paul's Cove, the ports of Marsa Sirocco, Marsa Scala, and the island of Comino, caused the aqueduct to be erected which supplies La Valette with water; it was 7,478 cannes* in length.

In 1630, a Grand Chapter was held, and new ordinances formed—not the least remarkable of which was that which decreed the severest punishment against any of the Knights engaging in duels. In 1669 the Maltese apprehending that peace being now concluded between the Venetians and Turks, the latter would use their arms against Malta in revenge for the injury done them in the late war, caused the Cotoner fortifications to be erected, new works to be added to La Floriana, Fort Ricasoli was erected, St. Elmo almost entirely rebuilt, and St. Angelo improved. The plague at this period appeared in Malta, and committed great ravages; and a Lazaretto was built at Port Marsa-Musceit.

Charles II. being at this period at war with Tripoli, the knights, unmindful of the sequestration of their property in England and Ireland by Henry VIII., threw open all their ports and arsenals to the English Navy, together with supplies of provision and ammunition for the crew and ordnance. Such generous conduct was handsomely acknowledged by Charles II. in the following letter to the Grand Master:—

'LETTER OF CHARLES II. OF ENGLAND, TO THE GRAND-MASTER OF MALTA.

'Carolus II. Dei Gratia Magnæ Britanniæ, Franciæ, et Iberniæ, Rex, Fidei Defensor, Eminentissimo Principi Domino Nicolao Cotoner, Magno Ordinis Melitensis Magistro, Consanguineo et Amico nostro Charissimo, salutem.

'Eminentissime Princeps, Consanguinee et Amice noster Charissime.

'Non solum per litteras Joannis Narbrourgh Equitis au-

* A canne=8 palmes, a palme=9 inches.

rati, quem classibus nostris in mari Mediterraneo admirabili jure ac potestate præfecimus, sed aliunde quoque intellexi-mus, quam benigne Eminentia Vestra, vestroque jussu et exemplo totus Sacer Ordo Melitensis illum, aliosque navium nostrarum bellicarum rectores tractaverit, ita ut domi et in armamentariis nostris melius quam in portu vestri Melitensi haberi non possent. Magnæ quidem hoc est amicitiæ indi-cium, eoque majoris, quod regna et maria nostra ab usitata Sacri Ordinis Melitensis navigatione tam longe distent, ut Eminentiæ Vestræ humanitati in hac parte respondendi, ra-rissimæ nobis occasiones expectandæ sint. Alius igitur modus exquirendus est, quo gratitudinem nostram et affectum erga Eminentiam vestram suæque sacræ Militiæ socios pro merito notificemus. Quod ut faciamus, omnes opportunitates quan-documque obvenerint, libentissime amplectemur, studiosissime prosequemur. Eminentiam interim vestram totumque Ordi-nem Melitensem Dei optimi maximi tutelæ exanimo commen-damus. Dabantur in Palatio nostro Whitehalli, die 26 Ja-nuarii, 1676.'

In May, 1698, Peter I. of Russia, in pursuance of his po-litic course, sent a grand embassy to Malta, under *Keremetz*, with a view to paying his respects to the most famous heroes of the church militant; the ostensible motive of this embassy was religion; but in reality it had reference to using the Maltese gallies against the Turks.

During the early part of the 18th century Malta made great efforts against the Barbary and Algerine corsairs, &c., and the safety of the commerce of the Mediterranean was mainly owing to the gallantry and skill of the knight's gallies. The evils of slavery were felt in the island during the Grand Mastership of Emanuel Pinto de Fonseca, when 4,000 African slaves conspired to murder and poison the knights, and which was only discovered when on the eve of execution, by a drunken quarrel between a negro, Persian, and Jew.

An insurrection occurred in 1775, when, as some say, the motive was to obtain sovereign power for the Pope; others

that Catharine II. of Russia was intriguing for the possession of the island; and it is even asserted,* that the object was to compel the order to restore to the Maltese their rights and privileges, which had been despotically suspended by the latter Grand Masters, and to lower the price of bread. Fort St. Elmo was surprized by 300 or 400 persons, but in consequence of a convention between the Maltese and the Order, it was soon recaptured, and peace restored; to guard against the recurrence of such an event, a regiment, consisting of Maltese and foreigners, officered by the knights, was raised for duty in the city of Valetta and the different ports, while a corp of 1,200 men, entirely Maltese, was organized for the defence of the country and coasts, and ready to be incorporated with several regiments of militia now organized. These measures were formidable barriers to the subsequent French attack on Malta.

The earthquake in Calabria and Sicily in 1783 afforded an opportunity for the knights and the Maltese to evince their pious charity as well as bravery; their gallies were fitted out at midnight, and effectual succours afforded to the perishing inhabitants around Messina and Reggio.

The consummation of the French revolution was a fatal blow to Malta; the Gallic republicans looked with wistful eyes on the neat and well kept farms and estates of the Order, which several centuries of good management had so greatly improved in various parts of France; and although when M. Necker *demanded,* as a *voluntary* contribution, the third part of the revenue of every proprietor in France, the Maltese receiver for that language in Paris was the first to give in his payments,—and notwithstanding the petitions of the Lyons and Marseilles Commercial Companies for the preservation of the Maltese rights, yet measures were taken for the sequestration of their property. In the first National Assembly the Order of St. John of Jerusalem was only regarded as a fo-

* I am thus informed by a Maltese gentleman now in London, Mr. Mitrovitch.

reign Sovereign possessing property in France, and as such, liable to the taxes imposed throughout the country: the appearance of justice was thus preserved; the next blow was a decree of the Legislative Assembly in reference to *equality*, namely, that every Frenchman who was a Member of the Order of Knighthood, which required *proofs of nobility*, should no longer be regarded as a French citizen; the third act in the drama was the decree of the 19th September, 1792, which determined that the Order of Malta should be entirely annulled, and *all its property annexed to the demesnes of France!** This decree had no sooner passed than the estates were seized on and desolated—the houses of the commanders ransacked and plundered—the knights pursued as if they were wild beasts—and many of them thrown into the dungeons which were termed places of '*public safety*,' where the axe of the executioner remained suspended over their heads. Notwithstanding this conduct, the knights remained neutral in the wars with which the French nation were engaged; and a temporary aid was afforded them by the Emperor of Russia restoring to them their property in Poland, and becoming Protector of the Order; but the death of Rohan, and the sequestration of their property in Spain and Italy, was a final blow to their strength and independence.

Although at the congress of Rastadt, the French professed the most pacific intentions towards Malta, their views were secretly directed to its forcible occupation; intriguing emissaries were sent into the island, and every effort made to sow dissentions among the different classes of the inhabitants. Buonaparte knowing the strength of the place, sent Admiral Brueys with a fleet of 18 sail of men of war to Malta; but previously despatched a 60 gun ship and a xebeque, which approached Fort St. Elmo, pretending a leak, and requesting

* Perhaps this confiscation was accelerated from the Order having listened to the application of Louis XVI. for pecuniary aid, and having sent that monarch, previous to his flight to Varennes, bills for 500,000 French livres.

permission to enter and repair in a neutral port at amity with the republic.

The request was unsuspectingly granted, and the ship remained eight days in the port pretending to refit, but really reconnoitering and sounding in boats the harbour and coasts around. The Admiral ascertaining that the Forts were well provided with artillery and manned, thought it prudent to depart, previously however thanking the Grand Master for his friendly conduct, and assuring him of the pacific intentions of the French government; the Minister of Marine at Paris, the better to blind the purposes of the republic, returned official thanks on the occasion, and yet within a very few months, the Directory shamelessly declared that Malta had been regarded as the enemy of France ever since the year 1792. On the evening of the 6th June, the first division of the French fleet appeared off Malta; the knights prepared for defence in the midst of their treachery, the French expressed their surprize that any alarm should be felt, while at the same time secret emissaries were preparing the elements of disaffection and distrust in the island; on the 9th, the remainder of the grand army and fleet destined for Egypt, appeared under Buonaparte, who immediately sent to the Grand Master (Hompesch) to demand *the free entry of all the ports for the whole of the fleet and convoy!* This of course would have been virtually a pacific surrender of the island, and the Grand Master accordingly refused; the designs of Buonaparte were now evident, and preparations were made for a defence, which, if it had not been for the treachery of several of the knights (Ransijat in particular), the tumults of the people in consequence of this treachery, and the indecision and incapacity of the Grand Master—would have been successful; suffice it to say, that with scarcely a struggle, and while the defenders of an impregnable fortress were fighting amongst themselves and slaying each other, Buonaparte, with a mere display of force, and by bribery and deceit, became master of the island of Malta. The following

were the terms of the capitulation, every article of which was almost instantly violated by the French, except the first.

Article 1.—The Knights of the Order of St. John of Jerusalem shall give up the city and forts of Malta to the French army; at the same time renouncing in favour of the French Republic, all right of property and sovereignty over that island, together with those of Gozo and Comino.

Article 2.—The French Republic shall employ all its credit at the Congress of Rastadt, to procure a principality for the Grand Master for life, equivalent to the one he gives up; and the said Republic engages to pay him in the mean time an annual pension of 300,000 French livres, besides two annats of the pension, by way of indemnification for his personals. He shall also be treated with the usual military honours during the whole of his stay in Malta.

Article 3.—The French Knights of the Order of St. John of Jerusalem, actually resident in Malta, if acknowledged as such by the Commander-in-chief, shall be permitted to return to their own country, and their residence in Malta shall be considered in the same light as if they inhabited France. The French Republic will likewise use its influence with the Cisalpine, Ligurian, Roman, and Helvetian Republics, that this third article may remain in force for the Knights of those several nations.

Article 4.—The French Republic shall make over an annual pension of 700 French livres to each knight now resident in Malta for life, and 1,000 livres to those whose ages exceed sixty years. It shall also endeavour to induce the Cisalpine, Ligurian, Roman, and Helvetian Republics, to grant the same pension to the Knights of their respective countries.

Article 5.—The French Republic shall employ its credit with the different powers, that the Knights of each nation may be allowed to exercise their right over the property of the Order of Malta, situated in their dominions.

Article 6.—The Knights shall not be deprived of their private property either in Malta or in Gozo.

Article 7.—The inhabitants of the islands of Malta and Gozo shall be allowed, the same as before, the free exercise of the Catholic, Apostolical, and Roman religion: their privileges and property shall likewise remain inviolate, and they shall not be subject to any extraordinary taxes.

Article 8.—All civil acts passed during the government of the Order, shall still remain valid.

Done and concluded on board the Orient off Malta, on the 24th Prairial, the sixth year of the French Republic, (12th June, 1798.)

Buonaparte,

(L. S.)

The Commander Bosredon Ransijat.

The Baron Mario Testaferrata; Doctor G. N. Muscat; Doctor Benoit Schembri; Counsellor F. Feodoro Bonanni;—all Maltese.

The Bailiff de Turin Frisari, without prejudice to the right of dominion which belongs to my Sovereign the King of the Two Sicilies.

Chev. Philippe de Amat, the Spanish Chargé d'Affaires.

(L. S.)

The forces belonging to the Order before the capitulation consisted of 200 French knights, 90 Italian, 25 Spanish, eight Portuguese, four German, and five Anglo Bavarian,—Total 332, (of whom 50 were disabled by age and infirmities.) The Maltese regiment 700 men, the Grand Master's guards 200, battalion belonging to the men of war 400, ditto of Gallies 300, old gunners 100, militia embodied as Chasseurs 1200, sailors belonging to the men of war who acted as gunners 1200, militia 3000;—Total 7,100. The Militia might be encreased to 10,000, all Maltese, capable of bearing arms. Against this force Buonaparte might well have been astonished that his triumph had been so bloodless, the greatest quantity shed being that of the Knights who perished during a mas-

sacre by the Maltese, which I am informed* was owing to the discovery of the latter as regards the treachery which the Knights had practised in giving up the place to the French, and on finding that the cartridges distributed to the soldiery were filled up with charcoal, and slightly topped with gunpowder, confusion and contradiction in the issue of orders, artillery with rotten carriages, knights with tri-coloured cockades and flags, &c. The disciples of liberty and equality were no sooner in possession of Malta, than they commenced evincing their distaste for the latter, by destroying every thing which bore any stamp of nobility; beautiful statues and paintings which had escaped the ravaging hand of several centuries of time, were mercilessly broken and burnt because they recorded the chivalrous deeds of the descendants of a long line of nobility. One of the first acts of the treacherous† occupiers of Malta, and in violation of the treaty of capitulation, was an order for all the knights to quit the island in three days. On the second day the friends and promoters of '*liberty and equality*,' evinced still further their regard for those high-sounding terms; Buonaparte sent a general press-gang into every part of the island, and all the sailors, the Grand Master's guards, and the enrolled soldiery, &c. were compelled to go on board the French fleet, leaving their families in a state of utter destitution. The third step was to seize on any of the Grand Master and Knight's tangible private property, which would contribute towards defraying the expenses of the municipal government, or enrich the new authorities.

Buonaparte quitted Malta on the 19th June, 1798, leaving a garrison of 4,000 men in the island, under General Vaubois, and carrying away with him whatever ornaments in gold or silver could readily be obtained from the public edifices

* By M. Mitrovitch.

† I should have previously mentioned, that, when the occupation of Malta was commenced, pretended Greek gallies, with experienced French soldiers on board disguised as sailors, were sent into the harbour as if laden with grain, but having beneath arms and ammunition for the supply of the disaffected, whom it was hoped would join the French.

and churches. The Maltese soon found that they had not gained by the exchange of masters; they however bore their sufferings in patience, as acknowledged in the following—

Extract of an intercepted Letter from General Vaubois, the French Commandant of Malta, to the Ex-Chevalier Fossetti, in Alexandria, date answering to the 11th December, 1800.

'Sir,—The Maltese endure much, and for a long time; but whilst the people grumble there is no danger. Violent measures intimidate them at the moment, and each individual is patient, cautious, submissive, and silent. Their natural courage, and contempt of hardship and danger, seem to have forsaken them; but it is in this state that they are to be most mistrusted and dreaded. This calm is like that of our Mediterranean sky. At times, on a fine summer's day, no appearance of danger warns the mariner. In an instant a dreadful tempest breaks forth, the heavens are obscured, and the vessel, taken by surprize, is upset, and ingulphed. We made them free; they were governed by their own magistrates, without our interference, and we guided them like children; when, unfortunately, new instructions arrived from France; and, having persuaded ourselves that we could treat them as a conquered nation, we made new regulations. The consequence was, that the whole country rose in an instant; in two hours, every man was in arms, fell upon, and cut off, our troops in every part of the island; we were all in perfect security, no symptom of discontent having appeared. The garrison of Valetta was shut on every side. We made several sallies—we had to combat enraged lions—no trace of their former docile character appeared. It became impracticable to make any impression on the country: English and Portuguese ships soon arrived and blockaded us by sea. After being shut up two years in the City of Valetta, and having only a day's provision left, the English generals granted us an honourable capitulation, and sent us to France. It was necessary that our troops should be embarked before the Maltese were admitted into the town, as those exasperated people would have disregarded our stipulations with

the English. The event would have been dreadful to all parties,—the English could have made no opposition.'

When the Maltese learned the intelligence of the total destruction of the French fleet at Aboukir, the hope of detroying their tyrants (now strengthened to 6,000 by the remnants that escaped from Egypt), was felt, and five days after the insurrection broke out. On the 2nd September, 1798, some French officers were despatched to Città Vecchia (the old capital of the island before Valetta was built, and distant from it about seven miles), and while they were employed in removing certain articles from one of the churches, the people assembled, fell upon them, put to death the commander, and the whole detachment afterwards met the same fate. This was the signal for a general insurrection of the whole of the inhabitants of the country; and such was the resolution and enthusiasm of the people, that almost without arms and ammunition, they obliged the French troops to shut themselves up in Valetta. The principal leaders of the Maltese were the Canon Caruana, now Bishop of Malta, Signor Vincenzo Borg, of Bircarcara, and Signor Vitale. The garrison of Valetta consisted of between 4,000 and 5,000 regular troops, besides the crews of two frigates and a line-of-battle-ship; together between 6,000 and 7,000 men. The French made several sorties, but were repulsed by the Maltese, who kept them closely blockaded. On the 18th September the Portuguese fleet, under the Marquis di Rizza, appeared off the island, and the Maltese chiefs having immediately concerted with the Admiral, he supplied them with a few muskets and some ammunition. On the 24th September a part of the English fleet, returning from Egypt, under Sir James Saumarez, appeared off Malta, as also did Lord Nelson, on the 24th October. The English furnished the Maltese inhabitants with 1,500 muskets and some ammunition, and left with them Sir Alexander Ball, who was chosen by the people as President of the National Council, to which they then gave the name of Congress. For the long period of 16 months, the Maltese continued to blockade Valetta, without any aid from foreign troops, inflicting loss and

disgrace to the French troops whenever they attempted to make a sortie from the walls; when, in December, 1799, a small body of British troops* (1,300), under General Graham, now Lord Lynedoch, and two Neapolitan battalions (900), arrived in the island. The following was Sir Thomas Graham's Address to the Maltese. It will be subsequently seen how ill the British Government has repaid the confidence reposed in them by the Maltese.

Address of General Sir Thomas Graham, commanding the British troops, dated from the head quarters of Gudia, 19th June, 1800.

'Brave Maltese!—You have rendered yourselves conspicuous and interesting to all the world, history does not present a more surprizing example; given a prey to your invaders, and deprived of every means of resistance, an eternal slavery appeared to be your inevitable fate.

'The oppression and sacrilege of your tyrants became insufferable to you; without considering what might be the consequences, you determined to take vengeance.—Without arms, without the resources of war, you broke in pieces your chains; your patriotism, your courage, your religion, supplied all your wants; your energy commanded victory, and an enemy formidable to the most disciplined troops of Europe, yielded in every point to your incomparable actions, and hid their disgrace behind their ramparts! The courageous battalions of the casals confined them there. With vigilance and patience worthy of the cause of liberty, you asked for assistance; and the powers who were allied in the support of liberty and civil society, hastened to give it you; you were supplied by them with arms, ammunition, money and provisions, whilst their fleets interrupted the supplies of your enemy.—My master, sovereign of a free and generous people, has sent me with a handful of men to support you, until a

* The 30th and 89th Regiments were the first troops which arrived in Malta from Messina. The latter was commanded by Lord Blaney; and one of the companies was commanded by an active and intelligent officer, the present Adjutant-General, Sir John M'Donald.

more imposing force can be spared for the reduction of Valetta; the circumstances of the war has hitherto prevented their arrival; but this is a precious moment, and should not be lost. What ought we to do then, to profit by this favourable conjuncture?—I anticipate your reply,—that you are ready to unite in mass, to complete the glorious work you have begun.

'To arms then, oh Maltese! is the universal cry of the whole nation, for God and our country!—Who is so dead to every point of duty and honour, as not voluntarily to obey such an invitation? None! None! but the traitor and vile time servant; these we do not wish to see in our ranks; that infallible voice which will distinguish with hero, every man who has exposed himself in his country's cause, will, with the same breath, brand these with the indelible mark of infamy.

'Abandon, therefore, for a few weeks, your usual occupations of industry; put yourselves under the command of your officers, and the guidance of those, whom experience in arms, their profession, will conduct you with greater advantage to the great, and finishing object, the conquest of your enemies. A weak and intimidated garrison, unequal to the defence of extended fortifications, cannot resist your attacks; success will recompense your fatigues, and quickly you will return with pride into the bosoms of your families; just pride, for having saved your country.

(Signed) 'Thomas Graham.'

The blockade continued until the 4th September, 1800, when the French being quite exhausted, surrendered to General Pigot, who had taken the command of the troops of the siege. The garrison was indeed reduced to such extremity during a strict blockade, exceeding two years, that the horses and mules were killed for the use of the sick in the hospitals. Those of the inhabitants who had interest enough in the medical department to obtain for invalid members of their families a small portion of liver, or other viscus, thought themselves fortunate. A flight of quails passing over Valetta,

enabled General Vaubois, with the aid of a good cook, to furnish the commissioners (who were sent in to treat for the surrender), with an excellent dinner of two courses, of what they supposed to be every variety of meat. After the capitulation was completed, some surprize was expressed by our commissioners at the French General's table being supplied with such a variety of excellent dishes at a time when it was believed the resources of the garrison were reduced to a moderate allowance of bread only. The General then confessed that they were chiefly indebted for such good fare to the fortuitous accident of a pair of quails being taken on the terraces that day, which, with some tame rabbits, was the only animal food on the table.

The following were the Articles of Capitulation agreed upon between General Vaubois, Commander-in-Chief of the Isles of Malta and of Gozo, and Rear-Admiral Villeneuve, commanding the Navy at Malta on the one part; and Major-General Pigot, Commander of the Troops of his Britannic Majesty and his Allies, and Captain Martin, commanding the Ships of his Britannic Majesty and his Allies, before Malta, on the other part.

'Art. 1. The garrison of Malta, and of the forts depending upon it, shall march out to be embarked and carried to Marseilles, at the day and time agreed upon, with all the honours of war; that is to say, drums beating, colours flying, matches lighted, with two four-pounders before them, with their covered waggon, and a covered waggon of infantry. The civil and military officers of the navy, and every thing relative to that department, shall be also carried to the port of Toulon.

Answer.—The garrison shall receive the honours of war required; but as it is impossible that they should all be embarked immediately, the following arrangements shall be resorted to instead. As soon as the capitulation shall be signed, the forts Ricasoli and Tigné shall be delivered up to the troops of his Britannic Majesty, and the ships shall be suffered to enter the port. The national gate shall be occupied by a guard composed of French and English in equal numbers, until the ships shall be ready to receive the first embarkation; the whole garrison shall then march out with the honours of war to the ships, where they shall lay down their arms.

'Those who cannot form part of the first embarkation shall occupy the isle and the fort Manuel, having an armed guard over them to prevent them from escaping into the adjoining country. The garrison shall be considered as prisoners of war, and are not to serve against his Britannic Majesty until they shall be exchanged, for which the officers respectively shall give their parole. All the artillery, the ammunition, and public magazines, of whatever kind, shall be given up to officers appointed for that purpose, as well as public papers.

'Art. 2. The general of brigade Chanez, commander of the place and the forts; the general of brigade d'Hennezel, commander of artillery and engineers; the officers, inferior officers, and soldiers, by land; the officers, crews, and men, employed in the navy; citizen Pierre Alphonso Guys, commissary-general of commercial connections with the French republic in Syria and Palestine, now at Malta by accident, the civil and military agents, ordinaries, and commissaries of war and navy, civil administrators, members of any of the constituted authorities, shall carry off their arms, their personal property, and their other effects of every kind.

ANSWER.—Granted, with the exception of the arms laid down by the soldiers, in conformity with what is provided by the first article.

'Art. 3. All persons of every country, who have borne arms for the republic, during the siege, shall be considered as part of the garrison.

ANSWER.—Granted.

'Art. 4. The division shall be embarked at the expense of his Britannic Majesty. Every officer or person employed shall in the passage receive the same rations as are by the laws and regulations of the French allotted to them. The officers who are members of the civil administrations shall be put on the same footing, both with respect to themselves and family, as military men of a correspondent rank.

ANSWER.—Granted, in conformity with the customs of the English navy, which allot the same ration to all ranks and conditions whatever.

'Art. 5. The necessary number of waggons and sloops shall be provided, in order to transport and to remove on board ship the private property of the generals, their aides-de-camps,

the ordinaries and commissaries, chiefs of corps, officers civil and military, &c. Their property and their papers shall not be subject to any search or inspection, upon the promise of the generals stipulating that there shall be no public property among them.

ANSWER.—Granted.

'Art. 6. Some vessels belonging to the republic, able to keep the sea, shall depart at the same time with the division, to go to a port of France, after being provided with the necessary provisions.

ANSWER.—Refused.

'Art. 7. The sick who are able to be transported shall be embarked with the division, and provided with provisions, medicines, surgeons' chests, and officers of health, necessary for their care during the passage. Those who are not able to be transported shall be treated with the necessary care; the general-in-chief leaving at Malta a physician and a surgeon in the service of France, who shall attend to them. They shall be furnished with lodgings gratis, if they come out of the hospital, and they shall be sent to France as soon as their situation will permit, with all that belongs to them; and in the same manner as the garrison. The generals-in-chief of the sea and land forces evacuating Malta, intrust them to the honour and humanity of the English general.

ANSWER.—Granted.

'Art. 8. Every individual, of whatever nation, inhabiting the island of Malta, or the others, shall neither be troubled, nor disturbed, nor molested, on account of their political opinions, nor for any part of their conduct during the time that Malta has been in the power of the French government. This article applies principally, and in its full extent, to those who have taken arms, or have filled civil, administrative, or military employments. They shall not be called to an account for any thing, much less prosecuted for acts of their commission.

ANSWER.—This article does not appear capable of being made the

' object of a military capitulation; but all the inhabitants who shall desire ' to remain may be assured of being treated with justice and humanity, and shall enjoy the full protection of the laws.

' Art. 9. The French who inhabit Malta, and all the Maltese, of whatever state they may be, who wish to follow the French army, and to go into France with their property, shall be at liberty to do so. Those who have moveables or immoveables, which cannot be immediately sold, and who may have the intention of going to reside in France, shall be allowed six months from the date of the signing of the present capitulation, to sell their landed or moveable property. These proprietors shall be respected; they shall act for themselves, if they remain, or by their authorized agent, if they follow the division. When they shall have finished their affairs in the time agreed on, they shall be furnished with passports to go to France, transporting, or causing to be transported, the moveables which may remain to them, as well as their capitals in money or bills of exchange, according as it may so happen.

ANSWER.—Granted, in the sense of the reply to the preceding article.

' Art. 10. As soon as the capitulation is signed, the English general shall leave entirely to the disposition of the General commanding the French troops, to cause a felucca to depart, with the necessary equipage, and an officer charged to carry the capitulation to the French government; the necessary safe conduct shall be granted to him.

ANSWER.—Granted.

' Art. 11. The articles of the capitulation being signed, there shall be given up to the English general the forts called des Bombes, which shall be occupied by an equal guard of English and French troops. It shall be consigned to this guard not to suffer to pass into the city, either any soldiers of the besieging troops, or any inhabitants of the islands, till the French troops shall be embarked, and out of sight of the port. In proportion as the embarkation goes on, the English troops shall occupy the posts by which the places may be entered. The English general will perceive that these precau-

tions are indispensable, that no dispute may arise on the subject, and that the articles of the capitulation may be religiously observed.

ANSWER.—Granted, conformably to what is provided by the reply to the first article; and all precautions shall be taken to prevent the Maltese troops from approaching the posts occupied by the French troops.

'Art. 12. All alienations, or sales of moveables or immoveables, by the French government, during the time it has remained in possession of Malta, and all transactions between individuals, shall remain inviolable.

ANSWER.—Granted, so far as they shall be just and lawful.

'Art. 13. The agents of the allied powers, who shall be in Valetta after the surrender of the place, shall not be disturbed in any thing, and their persons and property shall be secured by the present capitulation.

ANSWER.—Granted.

'Art. 14. All ships coming from France, whether of war or of commerce, which shall enter this port, shall not be considered as prizes, nor the crews made prisoners, for the first 20 days after the date of this capitulation, but they shall be sent back to France.

ANSWER.—Refused.

'Art. 15. The commander-in-chief, and the other generals, shall be embarked with their aides-de-camp, and the officers attached to their suite, without being separated.

ANSWER.—Granted.

'Art. 16. The prisoners made during the siege, including the crews of the William Tell and the Diana, shall be considered as part of the garrison; and the same regulation to extend to the crew of la Justice, if she should be taken before she reaches any of the ports of the republic.

ANSWER.—The crew of the *William Tell* is already exchanged, and that of the *Diana* will be taken to Minorca, in order to be exchanged immediately.

'Art. 17. All the property which belongs to the republic

shall not be subject to reprisal of any sort, under any pretext whatsoever.

ANSWER.—Granted.

'Art. 18. If any difficulty shall arise upon the conditions of this capitulation, they shall be interpreted in the most favourable manner for the garrison.

ANSWER.—Granted, according to justice.

Executed at Malta on the 5th September, 1800.

(Signed)—Vaubois, General of Division; Rear-Admiral Villeneuve; Pigot, Major-General; Captain Martin, Commander of the Ships of his Britannic Majesty and those of his Allies, before Malta.

On the departure of the French, the British provisionally occupied Valetta, and Sir A. Ball administered the Government of Malta as Civil Commissioner. That the expulsion of the French from Malta was attributable to the natives, was generally acknowledged; and, at the same time, those who had so nobly shewn themselves deserving of *liberty* were promised its full enjoyment by the officers, who represented our gracious sovereign, is shewn in the language of our first address, when the British flag floated on the fortress of Valetta.

'*General Pigot, Commander of the Troops, and Representative of His Britannic Majesty, to the Inhabitants of Malta and Gozo.*

'In the act of addressing you for the first time, it is with the greatest pleasure I have to inform you that his Majesty takes the Maltese nation under his protection. He has authorised me, as his representative, to inform you, that every possible means shall be used to make you contented and happy.

'Since I have been amongst you, I have received the best impressions of your good dispositions, and subordination to the laws; and of your gratitude to divine Providence, under whose favour the fleets and army of the King were enabled

to give an effective assistance to your brave exertions for the expulsion of your enemies; through which your peace and liberty are re-established. It shall be my constant care to render certain the continuance of this happiness; you well know that this good cannot come but through a just and exact administration of the laws on the part of the governing, and a constant obedience and confidence in their protection on the part of the people.

'This with due reverence to your holy religion and its ministers, and with reciprocal good faith, must form the grand basis of your happiness.

'The marine service, to which your former chief belongs, and in which he has always been distinguished, does not permit him to remain longer with you; the unremitting attention which he has always paid to your interests, entitles him to your warmest gratitude. In his absence you may assure yourselves that no suspension of the laws, or of the administration of Government shall take place; the tribunals of justice are established, and shall continue. And, it is my duty as well as my inclination, to protect the Maltese nation, and and to insure to them the full possessions of their religion, their property, and *their liberty.*

(Signed) 'H. PIGOT.

'*Palace, Valetta, 19th February,* 1801.'

Mr. Cameron, the Civil Commissioner, also thus addressed the Maltese on taking possession of the Government:—

'*To the Maltese Nation.*—Charged by his Majesty, the King of Great Britain, to conduct all the affairs (except the military) of these islands of Malta and Gozo, with the title of his Majesty's Civil Commissioner, I embrace, with the highest satisfaction, this opportunity of assuring you of the paternal care and affection of the King towards you; and that his Majesty grants you full protection, and the enjoyments of all your dearest rights. He will protect your churches, your holy religion, your persons, and your property.

'His paternal care extends to the hospitals, and other cha-

ritable establishments; to the education of youth, to orphans, to the poor, and to all those who recur to his Majesty's beneficence.

'Happy people! whom the hand of God has saved from the horrid misery and oppression under which groan so many innocent nations! receive with gratitude all this goodness from a King, who is the father of his subjects; who protects the weak against the strong; the poor against the rich; under whose dominion all are equally protected by the law.

'Hitherto, you have conducted yourselves with decorum and submission to the legitimate authorities; and your ancient fame in arms has not been tarnished by the defence which you lately made of your country.

'Commerce being now extended, the arts and sciences encouraged, manufactures and agriculture supported, and industry rewarded, Malta will become the emporium of the Mediterranean, and the seat of content.

'To execute such gracious commands of my Sovereign is not less my ardent desire than it is my sacred duty. My door shall be open to all; I will hear every one's plea; I shall be ready to render justice; to cause the law to be observed, tempering it with clemency; and to receive every information which shall have for its object the welfare of the Maltese; and, above all, I shall devote myself to the means of promoting the cultivation and manufacture of cotton, and of introducing and maintaining plenty in these islands.

'CHARLES CAMERON.

'*Palace, July 15th*, 1801.'

That the Maltese duly appreciated free privileges is shewn in the—

Declaration of Rights of the Inhabitants of the Islands of Malta and Gozo.

Malta, 15th June, 1802.

'We, the Members of the Congress of the Islands of Malta and Gozo and their dependencies, by the free suffrage of the people during the siege, elected to represent them on the im-

portant matter of ascertaining our native rights and privileges (enjoyed from time immemorial by our ancestors, who, when encroached upon, have shed their blood to regain them), and of fixing a constitution of Government, which shall secure to us and our descendants in perpetuity, the blessings of freedom and the rights of just law, under the protection and sovereignty of the King of a free people, His Majesty the King of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland. After long and mature deliberation, we make the following declaration, binding ourselves and our posterity for ever, on condition that our now acknowledged Prince and Sovereign shall, on his part, fulfil and keep inviolate his compact with us.

'1st. That the King of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland is our Sovereign Lord, and his lawful successors shall, in all times to come, be acknowledged as our lawful Sovereigns.

'2d. That His said Majesty has no right to cede these Islands to any power. That, if he chooses to withdraw his protection, and abandon his sovereignty, the right of electing another Sovereign, or of governing these Islands, belongs to us, the inhabitants and aborigines alone, and without controul.

'3d. That His Majesty's governors or representatives in these islands and their dependencies are, and shall ever be, bound to observe and keep inviolate the Constitution, which, with the sanction and ratification of His said British Royal Majesty, or his Representative or Plenipotentiary shall be established by us, composing the general congress, elected by the people, in the following proportion, viz.

'*Cities.*—Notabile and Casal Dingli, 14 members; Valetta, 12; Vittoriosa, 4; Senglea, 4; Cospicua, 4.

'*Casals or Burghs.*—Birchircara, 6 members; Attard, 3; Lia and Balzan, 3; Curmi (also a city), 12; Nasciar, 4; Gregorio, 3; Musta, 5; Zebbug (also a city), 8; Siggieni, 4; Luca, 3; Gudia, 1; Zurico, 4; Micabiba, 2; Çrendi, 2; Zabbar, 3; Tarshien, 2; Hasciach, 1; total members, 104.

'4th. That the people of Malta, Gozo, and their representatives in popular Council assembled, have a right to send letters, or deputies, to the foot of the throne, to represent and to complain of violation of rights and privileges, or of acts contrary to the constitution of the Government, or of the spirit thereof.

'5th. That the right of legislation and taxation belongs to the Consiglio Popolare, with the consent and assent of His Majesty's representative, without which the people are not bound.

'6th. That His Majesty the King is the protector of our holy religion, and is bound to uphold and protect it as heretofore; and without any diminution of what has been practised since these islands have acknowledged His Majesty as their Sovereign to this day; and that His Majesty's representatives have a right to claim such church honours as have always been shown to the regents of these islands.

'7th. The interference in matter spiritual or temporal, of no other temporal sovereign, shall be permitted in these islands; and reference in spiritual matters shall only be had to the Pope, and to the respective generals of the Monastic Orders.

'8th. That freemen have a right to choose their own religion. Toleration of other religions is therefore established as a right; but no sect is permitted to molest, insult, or disturb those of other religious professions.

'9th. That no man whatsoever has any personal authority over the lives, property, or liberty of another. Power resides *only in the law*; and restraint, or punishment, can only be exercised in *obedience to law*.'

Signed by all the Representatives, Deputies and Lieutenants of the Villages and Towns.

By the treaty of Amiens it was proposed to restore Malta to the Knights of St. John of Jerusalem, with however an admission that the Maltese were to form a language of the order without proofs of nobility being requisite, together with

other privileges not before possessed by the Maltese when formerly under the government of the Knights. The following is the article of the treaty referring to Malta.

'Article 10.—The Islands of Malta, Gozo, and Comino, shall be restored to the Order of St. John of Jerusalem, to be held on the same conditions on which it possessed them before the war, and under the following stipulations:—1st. The Knights of the Order, whose languages shall continue to subsist after the exchange of the ratification of the present treaty, are invited to return to Malta as soon as the exchange shall have taken place; they will there form a general Chapter, and proceed to the election of a Grand Master, chosen from among the natives of the nations which preserve their language unless the election has been already made since the exchange of the preliminaries. It is understood that an election made subsequent to that epoch shall alone be considered valid to the exclusion of any other that may have taken place at any period prior to that epoch. 2nd. The government of the French Republic and of Great Britain desiring to place the Order of the Island of Malta in a state of entire independence with respect to them, agree that there shall not be in future either a French or English language; and that no individual belonging to either the one or the other of these powers shall be admitted into the order. 3rd. There shall be established a Maltese language, which shall be supported by the territorial revenues and commercial duties of the island. This language shall have its peculiar dignities, an establishment of an hotel, proofs of nobility shall not be necessary for the admission of Knights of this language, and they shall be moreover admissible to all offices, and shall enjoy all privileges in the same manner as the Knights of the other languages, at least half of the municipal administration, civil, judicial, and other employments, depending on the government, shall be filled by inhabitants of the Island of Malta, Gozo, and Comino. 4th. The forces of His Britannic Majesty shall evacuate the island and its dependencies within three months of the exchange of the ratifications, or sooner if possible. At

that epoch it shall be given up to the Order in its present state, provided the Grand Master, or Commissaries, fully authorised acccording to the statutes of the Order, shall be in the island to take possession, and that the force which is to be provided by his Sicilian Majesty, as is hereafter stipulated, shall have arrived there. 5th. One half of the garrison at least shall be always composed of native Maltese; for the remainder the Order may levy recruits in those countries which continue to possess the languages (posseder les langues), the Maltese troops shall have Maltese officers. The commandership in chief of the garrison, as well as the nomination of the officers, shall pertain to the Grand Master, and this right he cannot resign temporarily, except in favour of a Knight, and in concurrence with the advice of the Council of the Order. 6th. The independence of the Isles of Malta, Gozo, and Comino, as well as the present arrangement shall be placed under the protection and guarantee of France, Great Britain, Austria, Spain, Russia, and Prussia. 7th. The neutrality of the Order, and of the Island of Malta, with its dependencies, is proclaimed. 8th. The ports of Malta shall be open to the commerce and the navigation of all nations, who shall there pay equal and moderate duties. These duties shall be applied to the cultivation of the Maltese language, as specified in paragraph 3rd., to that of the civil and military establishments of the island, as well as that of a general Lazaretto, open to all colours. 9th. The States of Barbary are excepted from the condition of the preceding paragraph until by means of an arrangement to be procured by the contracting parties, the system of hostilities which subsists between the States of Barbary and the Order of St. John, or the powers possessing the languages, or concurring in the composition of the Order, shall have ceased. 10th. The Order shall be governed, both with respect to spirituals and temporals, by the same statutes which were in force when the Knights left the isles, as far as the present treaty shall not derogate from them. 11th. The regulations contained in paragraphs 3, 5, 7, 8, and 10, shall be converted into laws and perpetual statutes of the Order

in the customary manner; and the Grand Master, or if he should not be in the island at the time of its restoration to the Order, his representative, as well his successors, shall be bound to take an oath for their punctual observance. 12th. His Sicilian Majesty shall be invited to furnish 2,000 men, natives of his states, to serve in the garrisons of the different fortresses of the said islands; that force shall remain one year, to bear date from their restitution to the Knights; and if at the expiration of this term the Order should not have raised a force sufficient in the judgment of the guaranteeing powers to garrison the island and its dependencies, such as is specified in the paragraph, the Neapolitan troops shall continue there until they shall be replaced by a force deemed sufficient by the said powers. 13th. The different powers designated in the 6th. paragraph, to wit—France, Great Britain, Austria, Spain, Russia, and Prussia, shall be invited to accede to the present stipulations.

Amiens, 25th March, 1802.

(Signed) J. Bonaparte.
Cornwallis.
Azara.
Schimmelpenninck.

The intelligence of re-establishing the Order of St. John of Jerusalem was certainly not received with joy by the Maltese, who sought the blessings of free institutions, and a restoration of their ancient commercial opulence under the protection of Great Britain; and for the sake of internal tranquillity it is fortunate for the island that the restoration did not take place; indeed the necessity of continuing the Order of St. John under the altered circumstances of the age was less than doubtful: and the main object of the French in designing to restore the Order in Malta was with a view of still keeping a hold on that strong island, as thus shewn by the Maltese themselves in a memorial on the occasion when protesting against the re-occupation of the island by the Knights. [The following, as also the preceding documents, are translated from the Italian language made use of by the Maltese.]

Memorial, &c.

'That the Maltese first took up arms against the French, and besieged them in Valetta; they afterwards received assistance from the Portuguese, the Neapolitans, and the British, who by their fleets blockaded up the Great Harbour, while the Maltese guarded all other avenues to the island.

'The gates of Valetta were shut the 2d of September, 1798; and the city surrendered the 4th of September, 1800.

'The foreign troops were only auxiliaries (as the proclamations of the British generals prove): the Maltese were the principals; the Maltese had conquered the whole island, except Valetta, before they received any foreign assistance whatever.

'During the siege of Valetta, the Maltese lost above 20,000 souls; the British had not one single soldier killed by the enemy.

'The French garrison, reduced to the last extremity from want of provisions, offered to capitulate, and to leave hostages for the payment of the large sums which they had taken from the public treasury; from the università (or public fund belonging to the Maltese for the furnishing the island with corn); from the Monte di Pietà (where individuals pledged their effects); from churches, by forced loans from private persons.

'The situation of the French garrison was known to the British general, as well as to all the Maltese: in two days it must have surrendered at discretion. There were found only a few salms (a salm is about an English quarter) of wheat, and no other provisions in Valetta when it surrendered.

'Major-General Pigot, however, granted the garrison a capitulation without consulting or even informing the Maltese, without naming them, or stipulating one article in their favour, by which the French were allowed to carry with them their effects; and accordingly, before they gave up their posts, they plundered the inhabitants of Valetta of their remaining money, jewels and effects, and carried them on board vessels, which conveyed to France the spoils of a victorious people.

'The British troops took possession of the place, and caused the Maltese to lay down their arms on the glacis before they entered the town.

'The Maltese, without suspicion, and relying on the good faith of the British nation, gave up the government of their country into the hands of the British generals without contradiction, obeying them with fidelity and submission, as ministers of the sovereign their hearts had elected.

'They forbear to make any comment on the manner they have been treated, because they are fully persuaded, that it will be disavowed with horror and contempt by the King's ministers.

'The expense of the war by land, and the pay of the Maltese battalions, were paid by the Maltese, and they mortgaged the lands of several villages to answer for debts which they had for that purpose contracted.

'The Maltese therefore demand that, either the island be delivered up to them, or that all the expences incurred by them for the share of the war which they took, be paid to them; and that an indemnity for the damages they suffered by the war, and by the plunder which the French were suffered to carry away, be made to them.

'The Maltese also alledge, that they, as principals in the war, were the captors; that every species of public property is theirs, and that if by superior force it should be wrested out of their hands, the mortgages on them ought to be paid.

'In fine, the Maltese claim the island by right of conquest from the French, who had by right of conquest acquired it from the Order of St. John of Jerusalem.

'With respect to the Order of St. John, the island was ceded to them by the Emperor Charles V. as a fief, and as a place for them to maintain their troops, to make continual war against the infidels. Our ancestors submitted reluctantly, but with the express condition however, that in the possession of the Order they should still enjoy their privileges.

'As to the landed property the Knights had acquired in the island, it is contrary to the stipulations, and it has been

'obtained by usurpation of private property; and a great part of the fortifications and public buildings were raised with the money of the Maltese by taxes or duties imposed on them for the purpose, declaring the object and the destination of the produce of such taxes. The Università, the Monte di Pietà, and many other institutions, are entirely Maltese private property, and never belonged to the Order.

'That, however, whatever claim the Order might have had to the island, they have lost it by an act more conclusive than that of being conquered; viz. by the most disgraceful treason to their own body, violating all the laws of honour and religion, and the statutes of the Order, which they solemnly swore, on the Gospel, at the altar, to maintain with the last drop of their blood. By this act, according to their own laws, all those concerned cease to be members of the Order. They are degraded, and 'become infamous,' and the sound part of them (if any such had existed) were bound to put them to death; and yet, at this period, the Order was entire, embodied, assembled in the seat of its establishment, which had been witness of so many glorious actions, with every means of defence, and without any wants. If then, while their honour still had a name, they were traitors and partizans of the French, what must they now be, vilified and disgraced, reduced to indigence and shameful dependency.

'But the Maltese have other claims to the sovereignty of their own island, without recurring to the arguments made use of by some writers, that, when a throne becomes vacant, the people have a right to name their own Sovereign. They claim their own independence by having twice purchased the island, and paid the price stipulated to the Kings of Spain and Sicily.'

And, continuing to quote upon what grounds they found their claims of the sovereignty of the island, they say, further down,—

'Feeling our own political weakness, and putting a boundless confidence in the sincerity of the British government, and the faith of the British nation, we rather wished to be-

come subjects of the King, and enjoy all the advantages of free subjects, to a monarch who is the father of all his people, than to assert and maintain our own entire independence; but never can we believe, that abusing of our confidence, and violating all the laws of justice, human and divine, we are to be forcibly delivered over by our auxiliary allies as a conquered nation, or, as vile slaves, sold for a political consideration to new masters, and to masters whose tyranny, extortion, and sacrilege, have rendered them the execration of every virtuous individual, and to whom, whatever misery may ensue, we will never submit. Excluded from the fortress, almost without arms and ammunition, without provisions, and absolutely without any foreign alliance or promise of assistance, our brave islanders resolved to perish or be free; the whole country rose armed, mostly with utensils of agriculture, and expelled the French from every post, except the fortifications of Valetta, and kept them blockaded, repulsing every sortie made by the enemy. They mortgaged their lands to procure corn from Sicily. While the British fleet blockaded the Great Harbour, the islanders defended every other inlet, until Valetta surrendered.

'Is it to be expected that such a people will deliver up their rights to such masters? We may be free — we may perish; but we never will submit! From whose hands will Divine justice require their blood? On whose head will fall the vengeance of Heaven, which will be called down by our fathers, our innocent babes, and our venerable priests, in the hour of death?

'O Britannia! hitherto the envy and the terror of tyrants, protectress of liberty and of the oppressed! may thy head, radiant with glory, never be struck with a bolt from the unerring hand of Him who gives and who takes back crowns.'

And, entering on the political view that, if Malta be restored to the Order, it will in reality be delivered up to the French, the memorialists concluded by saying,—

'With respect to the guarantee which we have heard of to be given by other powers, a war puts an end to it. If those

powers occupy some parts of the fortresses, the troops may be bribed, and immense sums the French will wisely sacrifice. The military posts are dependent one on the other. We can shew the impracticability of occupying part, without the whole; we can point out how they can and will obtain their ends; we can shew that there can be no security without a British garrison occupying the works, and the inhabitants being placed under a British *civil* government.

'We do not enter into the profound views of cabinets; but be it permitted to us to observe solely, that if France had no other intention than the re-establishment of the Order in its pristine splendour and independence, why have they not chosen a place where they could be more independent? And why have they considered the possession of Malta as necessary to the re-establishment of the Order? It is but too clear to us that Malta is not intended to be taken out of the hands of the English, to leave it long in those of the Order of St. John of Jerusalem.' (Signatures.)

The restoration of the Order was not effected, though Russia was very desirous as well as France that such should have been the case; and indeed, St. Petersburgh had been the head-quarters of the Knights since their expulsion from Malta; the island, therefore, became a portion of the British Empire, not by conquest, but by the voice of the Maltese themselves; who, by their bravery in defending themselves against the French, shewed themselves fully entitled to grant the sovereignty of their country to those only who possessed their confidence.

Mr. Cameron was appointed Civil Commissioner, and was succeeded by Sir Alexander Ball, who, dying, the island had, in 1809, General, afterwards Sir Hildebrand Oakes, as Chief, until 1813, when Sir Thomas Maitland arrived as the first British Governor of Malta; Sir Thomas died in 1824, and was succeeded by the Marquis of Hastings, who dying in 1826, was succeeded by General Ponsonby, the present amiable and much respected Governor.

PHYSICAL ASPECT AND GEOGRAPHY.—Malta, the most southerly island in Europe,* in the parallel (Valetta Observatory) 35.53 N, and in the meridian of 14.30.35 E. of Greenwich, is in shape an irregular oval, which has been compared by some to a fish—its southern aspect resembling the back, the bay of Marsa Sirocco the mouth, the various indentations on the N. aspect, the ventral fins, and the deep indentation of the bay of Melleha, with a corresponding indentation at the back of the island, the tail; the island in fact stretches E. and W., and is much indented with bays and inlets of the sea on the side which corresponds with the coast of Sicily, while that which looks towards the African coast is nearly a continued curve.

The extreme length of the island is stated by Dr. Hennen at 18 to 20 miles; and its greatest breadth from N. to S. 10 to 12 miles: and circumference 60 to 70; but a chart of the islands under the British crown, furnished me from the Colonial Office,† makes the extreme length 16¾ miles; extreme breadth 9; with an area of 95 square miles. The same document makes Gozo (the island adjacent to Malta, and under the same government), 9¾ miles, extreme length, 5½ breadth; with an area of 27 square miles. Malta is distant from Cape Passaro, the nearest point of Sicily.‡ N. 56 miles, and Cape Bon, the nearest point of the African continent, is almost two hundred miles distant in a S. W. direction. It is bounded on the E. by the Island of Candia, on the W.

* The island was formerly placed by all geographers in Africa; but was declared to be in Europe, as regards the service of our soldiery, by a British act of parliament.

† Another estimate will be found under the head of *Agriculture*.

‡ The following, according to Captain Smyth, are the bearings and distances between several points on the S. coast of Sicily and Malta:—

From Cape Passaro to Valetta, S. 33° 14′ W., 56 miles.

Alicata to	Do.	21	55′ E.	75¼
Terra Nova to	Do.	10	40	70
Girgenti to	Do.	30	03	90
Sciacca to	Do.	35	51	118
Cape Granitola to	Do.	42	32	136
Maretimo	Do.	42	45	173

by the islets of Pantelleria, Linosa, and Lampedusa; on the N. by Sicily, and on the S. by Tripoli. The sea dividing Malta from Sicily is only 80 fathoms deep in the middle or deepest part, very shallow in other places, and the bottom sandy; it is called the Canal of Malta, and is generally rough, with strong currents setting through it on the N.W. side towards the E.S.E., and on the E.S.E. side toward the E. Gozo Isle, originally known under the name of '*Gaulos*' by the Greeks, '*Gaulum*' by the Romans, and by corruption in the Arabic language '*Gaudese*' which in process of time was Italianized into Gozo (pronounced Godso); is situate on the westward of Malta; distant from thence in its nearest point about three miles, though some parts of the strait is five miles broad. In the channel lies the small islet of Comino, formerly called 'Hephostia,' of an oblong shape, and about five miles in circumference; with a still smaller islet or rock called *Cominetto*, off its N.W. extremity. Malta, comparatively speaking is low; the highest land being estimated at no more than 1,200 feet above the level of the sea, and cannot be discerned until the mariner approachs within 20 to 30 miles of the shore. The hill and dale surface is beautifully diversified, and the natural industry of the Maltese has converted an apparently barren rock into a very picturesque country: as a general feature it may be observed that the island is furrowed with vallies running from S.W. to N.E. parallel to each other, and becoming longer and deeper as they extend from the eastern and western extremity, one termed Melleha nearly divides Malta into two parts; the most fertile however is the vale, which forms at its lowest extremity the Port of Valetta.

A small range of hills and craggy rocks, called the Ben Jemma Hills, bearing a N.W. direction from Valetta, stretch across the entire breadth of the island, and from these different spurs branch off, giving variety to the landscape. The southern shore consists of high or shelving rocks, without creeks or ports, or where a landing could be effected; to the E. there is the port of Marsa (*Marsa*, in Arabic, signifies

port or harbour) Scala, and towards the S.W. that of Marsa Sirocco, capable of containing a great number of vessels. On the W. there are two bays, called Antifaga and Magiarro.

The Port of St. Paul is on the coast opposite Sicily, and is so called from a tradition that the vessel in which St. Paul was sent prisoner to Rome was driven in thither by a storm. St. George's Port, towards the N. is not far distant from that of St. Paul; St. Julian's Bay is on the same shore.

Directly facing Cape Passaro are the two most considerable ports; that to the left termed Marsa Musceit, in the midst of which is a small island where quarantine is performed; the other, situate to the E. is called the Great Harbour;* these two are separated by a tongue of land, on which the city of Valetta is built, the extreme point having on it the Castle of St. Elmo, which defends the entrance of both ports: projecting into the Great Harbour are two parallel points of land, shaped somewhat like two fingers; on one is built the Castle of St. Angelo, nearest the entrance of the port, with the Burgh (il Borgo) to the eastward: on the other equally small peninsula is the fortress of *La Sangle*, which divides the *Galley* Port from the *French* Port. Fort St. Michael is on the land side, and defends the two ports of *La Sangle*.

Città Vittoriosa, or Borgo, is built on the same point of

* The following are the measurements of some of the principal points between Valetta and the grand and quarantine harbours. The mouth of the great harbour between Ricasoli and St. Elmo, from shore to shore, 435 yards; between Fort St. Angelo and the Marina of Valetta, from St. Angelo Point to the shore below the statue of Neptune, 350 yards; between Isola Point and the Custom House, 360 yards; between Corradino Point and the Marina, from the Ordnance Store to the guard-house, 422 yards; between the church of the Capuchin convent and the causeway which bounds the Marsa, 1,064 yards. The mouth of the quarantine harbour between Fort Tigné and Fort St. Elmo, from shore to shore, 404 yards; from the Lazaretto island to Valetta, from shore to shore, 265 yards. The harbour is so deep, that the largest ships of war can anchor in almost every part of it between the mouth and Corradino Point; from that part it gets shallow, until at the causeway at the Marsa, the depth does not exceed two feet from the surface of the water to the soft mud.

land as the Castle of St. Angelo, but separated from it by a wet ditch. It has a line of works on its land front, extending from the Galley Port to Calcara Bay.

La Sangle, or Isola, is built on the other point of land, having its land front covered in a similar manner to that of Vittoriosa, by a line of works, extending from the Galley Port to the French Port.

More in the rear of La Sangle than St. Angelo is the city of *Cospicua*, or Burmola, commanded by St. Margaret's Hill, on which is a fort of the same name, and covered to the eastward by a continued line of works, called Fiorenzola: still further in the rear, and forming a crescent, joined at either end to La Sangle and St. Angelo fortifications, are the strong Cotoner lines, consisting of a succession of bastions without any advanced works; which were intended to be effected, but circumstances prevented their completion. By sweeping round the French Port to Calcara Bay, towards the interior of the country, a considerable space is left in front of the St. Margarita lines, which is intended to afford shelter to the inhabitants in the event of the island being attacked. The two points of land which jut out to meet the promontory on which St. Elmo Castle is built, are also strongly fortified: the *one*, Fort Ricasoli, which is very large, but irregularly built; this, in conjunction with Fort St. Elmo, defends completely the entrance of the Great Harbour: the *other*, Fort Tigné, protects Marsa Musceit Harbour, which is also further guarded by Fort Manoel, which is built on the quarantine island before adverted to. This fort is regularly and beautifully built, has five bastions, a half moon, and a covert-way; it is mined.

In addition to these powerful works Valetta is effectually protected on the southward or land side, where the neck of the peninsula joins the main, by the fortifications termed *La Floriana*, a line of works extending from the great Port to that of Marsa Musceit, and in advance of which on the side near the great Port, there is a beautiful crowned horn-work, with a covered way.

The *Floriana* constitute five successive lines, any one of which well manned would be sufficient for defence; the

ditches in some instances are 90 feet deep and excavated in the solid rock; the greater part of the ramparts being in like manner formed by hewing the rocks into the required shapes. Thus Valetta city is protected on three sides by the waters of the harbour, which no hostile fleet could enter without being immediately blown to atoms; the batteries of St. Angelo, for instance, rising in four tiers of very heavy metal, a single discharge from which would sink the largest vessel. The entrance to the port is still further secured by an enormous chain or chains, capable of resisting the shock of any force that may be brought to bear on them.

These extraordinary, and it may be added, impregnable works, are the result of continued and unremitting exertions for upwards of two centuries, as shewn by the following data.

1551. Vittoriosa fortified. Fort St. Elmo built.

1554. Isola fortified. New works added to Vittoriosa. New works added to Fort St. Elmo.

1556. La Valetta commenced.

1571. La Valetta finished.

1636. Floriana works commenced.

1657. Towns built along the coast.

1670. New works added to Floriana. Cotoner lines commenced. Fort Ricasoli commenced.

1686. Fort St. Elmo rebuilt. The Castle of St. Angelo considerably strengthened.

1722. Fort Manoel commenced.

1749. Fort Chambray (in Gozo) commenced.

1796. Fort Tigné commenced.

The old city stands upon a hill which overlooks the whole country as far as La Valetta; it has a front, with a ditch and covered way. Above the top of the hills which cross the island and separate the inhabited and cultivated parts of Malta from the remainder, a wall five feet thick was erected by the Knights as a retreat for the troops to fall back on if unable to prevent the landing of an enemy. Forts and batteries were also erected at Ports St. Paul and Marsa Sirocco, which would place a vessel attempting to anchor under a cross fire; and towers and redoubts were erected along the

whole coast in such a manner as to communicate almost immediately with each other.

The lines also are of immense strength, enclosing the various quarters of the capital for the space of a square mile and a half, and forming works of such extent and intricacy that it is said 25,000 men would be required to man them in their full extent, when they might well be deemed impregnable. The French had but 6,000 men to defend them, and yet could only be reduced by famine. Upwards of 1,000 pieces of cannon were mounted on all the works, and Buonaparte entertained so confirmed an opinion of the strength of the place, that when he was asked on his departure for Egypt to give instructions relative to the defence of the garrison and fortifications, he told the officer in command (Vaubois) to *lock the gates and put the key in his pocket.*

In fine, it may be said that Malta is as defensible as nature and art combined can render it; to sit down regularly before Valetta and its surrounding fortifications would require a well appointed army of many thousand men; and if the fortress were well manned and provided, there can be no estimate formed of the time it would hold out, as the besiegers, in addition to their land forces, ought to be able to blockade the port and command the dominion of the Mediterranean.

La Valetta, the modern and chief city of the island, founded by the celebrated Grand Master of that name in 1566, and completed in 1571, may be considered one of the finest towns in Europe; the Kings of France, Spain and Portugal, the Pope, and all the Knights who resided out of Malta, having contributed munificently towards its erection. The neck of land or promontory on which it stands (originally called *Mount Sceberras*) divides the main harbour, (*Great Port*) from Marsa Musceit haven, where the shipping perform quarantine; the neck is estimated at 3,200 yards long, by 1,200 broad, descending by a gradual slope; its whole length, from the land barrier at the southern extremity to the point of St. Elmo, which terminates in the Mediterranean in a narrow point of about 300 yards, bearing N. E. by N., on which

point the citadel and lighthouse of St. Elmo are built. The centre of this neck of land is its highest point, whence it gradually slopes to the water's edge at either side. The longer streets, eight in number, run in parallel lines along this ridge or "Hog's back," from S. to N., or more strictly speaking, from S. S. W. to N. N. E., and are intersected by shorter streets, 11 in number, which run from one harbour to another up the sides of the ridge: besides these regular streets, rows of houses front the works all round, a carriage space being left between them; the thoroughfares afford an excellent means of ventilation, while the gradual descent towards the sea, on all sides, facilitates the removal of all nuisances. The public buildings and private dwellings are of a very superior order, the latter being inferior to those of no other city. The houses are of solid stone, with flat or terraced roofs, composed of stone slabs, covered over with a thick bed of 'terras' or 'puzzolana,' so as to be impenetrable to rain, and as in Calcutta and other parts of the East, affording a cool and agreeable morning and evening promenade. Very little wood is employed, the staircases, floors, &c. being of stone. The lower parts of the houses are used for shops, stores, or habitations for the poorer classes; between the ground and first floor is a 'mezzanino' or middle floor, rarely exceeding 7 or 8 feet in height, and frequently used as bed rooms or eating apartments; the principal suite of apartments being on the first floor. Each house has generally a court, with a tank or large well; and into this court the apartments of the principal chambers look. A house fit for a moderate family, containing 12 or 14 apartments, may be rented at £20 per annum; and an equally commodious house and garden in the country for half that sum. The paving and lighting of Valetta are excellent; the principal streets are formed with flags cut out of the hardest pieces of native stone, or with blocks of lava from Mount Etna; and a regularly raised footway runs on either side. Water is supplied by means of an aqueduct (17,000 yards long) before mentioned, the quantity introduced being 58 gallons per minute. In order to extend the supply

of this indispensable aliment, every house is furnished with a tank, into which baked earthen pipes convey the rain water from the flat roofs, and wells and cisterns are sunk in every possible situation. The buildings appropriated for Government are admirable; and the palace of the Governor is suited for the residence of a crowned head.

Amongst the great number of edifices* which greatly contribute to the ornament of the capital, the first place is due to the church, or, as they call it, the Con-cathedral of St. John. This magnificent building was erected by the Grand-Master La Cassière, and successively enriched with great profusion by the never-failing devotion of the Maltese. The knights of the different nations, or, as they were named, *languages*, had in this church their respective chapels. Every compartment of the roof, between the pillars of the chapels, is ornamented with a picture representing the principal events of the life of St. John; the greater part of them are incomparably fine. The pavement is composed of sepulchral stones of inlaid marble of different colours; several monuments have also been erected between the pillars and in various places of the church; and for the richness and grandeur of their structures they stand unrivalled, some of them being encrusted with jasper, agate, and many other similar stones. The principal altar is placed in the middle of the choir, beyond which is a group in marble representing the baptizing of our Saviour. Before the deplorable invasion of the French army, the treasury of this church possessed a great number of articles, extremely valuable, not only on account of the preciousness of the matter, but also for their antiquity and workmanship. Unfortunately none of them were spared by the rapacity of the invaders.

* I am indebted for these remarks to Captain Vella, late of the Maltese Fencibles, a gentleman no less attached to his native island than faithful in his loyalty to the government of Great Britain; he himself being wounded in the noble struggle which the Maltese made for the expulsion of the French, and having his brother shot by the French, who also had condemned Captain Vella to a similar fate—losing the greatest part of their property, taken or destroyed by the French.

The other most remarkable buildings are the palace of the the Grand-Masters, now the residence of the Governor, the lodges of the different languages, the Conservatory, the University, the Treasury, the Palace of Justice, the Hospital, the public Bank (Monte di Pietà), the Barracks, the Royal Theatre, and the Exchange. The architecture of all these structures is chiefly distinguished by two qualities generally to be found in the Maltese constructions; the one an exquisite taste in the composition of the general subjects, and the other a noble plainness in the arrangement of single parts. The front of the Provençal lodge, that of Castille, and that of the Conservatory are the most notable for their style of architecture. One part of the latter edifice serves for the public library, which contains about a hundred thousand volumes. Another very useful library, though not so vast, has been established in another part of the same building: it bears the name of the Garrison Library, and is of great utility to its numerous readers, by the readiness with which books are obtained, without the least inconvenience. Next to the Library is an extensive Museum, divided into several rooms, each containing a great variety of interesting objects, such as a large collection of medals, several vases, the antiquities of the island, ancient marbles, &c.

The body of the Hospital consists of several large airy apartments, and immense storehouses, capable of containing an extraordinary number of patients. During the government of the Grand-Masters, the sick had all the utensils employed in their service of silver, but of such plain workmanship as sufficiently proved that they were adopted from a motive of cleanliness, and not as objects of luxury.

The Grand-Master's palace, now the residence of the Governor, is an immense square pile of building externally unornamented, but of an imposing appearance. The apartments are large and convenient, and everywhere enriched with splendid furniture, beautiful pictures, hangings, and damasks. There is here also a great collection of arms of all kinds, arranged with the utmost precision and remarkable good taste. The

arsenal is another respectable establishment: it was formerly of the greatest importance under the Grand-Mastership of the order; but it owes its late enlargement to the British Government. Another structure, at present suspended, but which the Maltese earnestly hope to see finally brought to a completion, is the excavation of a vast basin for the expeditious refitting of ships. A work, the general convenience of which may be instantly perceived, deserves the special attention of Government.

The barracks and hospitals are numerous, and an idea of their substantial structure may be formed from the fact that, the lower floors of the barracks are formed frequently of the surface of the quarries, whence the stone has been mined for the construction of the fortifications, while the lower parts of the walls are merely the rock perpendicularly scarped. The barracks or casements are all bomb-proof; ventilation is kept up by long galleries and large doors of communication; the heat of summer is little felt in such barracks, the supply of water to which is copious, and the facilities for sea bathing and exercise admirable. A great many monuments are inclosed in the circuit of the ramparts, which are never visited by an Englishman without emotion: namely those of—Sir Ralph Abercrombie, Sir Alexander Ball, Sir Thomas Maitland, the Marquis of Hastings, Admiral Hotham, Sir Robert Spencer, and others illustrious in British history.

The casals, or towns, or villages scattered throughout the island are neatly and strongly built; and the old capital of Città Vecchia, or *Notabile*, is antique in structure and appearance. It preserves among the natives its ancient name of *Medina*, and is still remarkable as the seat of the bishoprick; it contains the palace of the first Grand Masters, together with the cathedral of Malta, adjoining which is an excellent college. The chief curiosity is the celebrated catacombs, an extensive labyrinth of subterranean streets crossing each other in every direction; they are cut in the rock at a depth of about 15 feet below the surface; and the

number of passages and corridors is so great and so regular that it may well be called a subterranean city.

The famed grotto of St. Paul is not far distant, and consists of a large cave, divided into three separate parts by iron grates: in the furthest part from the entrance is a beautiful statue of St. Paul, of white marble. A part of the cave resembles the nave of a church, and is constantly covered with a surprising degree of vegetation.

The roads are generally good, and extend to all parts of the island, so as to admit of easy access by mules, asses, horses, carts and caleches or single horse carriages; and communications by water are also free, safe and cheap, hundreds of commodious boats keeping up a constant intercourse between the cities on each side of the harbour, while boats of a larger class ply regularly to Gozo and Sicily.

Gozo (or *Gaudisch*, as the natives call it),* as before observed, is separated from Malta by an arm of the sea, four to five miles wide; with an average length of eight miles, six broad, and twenty in circumference; although fertile and thickly inhabited, it contains no town, the inhabitants being scattered in six villages, protected by a strong fort, *Rabato*, in the centre of the island. The surface of the island is very agreeably diversified with hill and dale, some of the more elevated parts in the N.W. being nearly 2,000 feet above the sea. A chain of these elevations encircle the island, embracing a beautiful series of fertile vallies, separated by gently rising grounds; the summits of some of the mountains are flattened, and truly table lands, others are rounded or mammillary; and there are four or five remarkable detached hills, perfectly conical in shape, and presenting the appearance of old volcanic productions. The interior of the island and its shores abound in caves and rocks, being of the same calcareous nature as those of Malta, but the country is much more rural and agreeable.

* The name was supposed to be given from its imaginary resemblance to a cup; the real shape is an irregular oval.

Fort Chambray, commenced in 1749, contains the principal accommodation for troops; it lies on the S.E. side of the island, and is built upon an elevated promontory, forming one side of a little bay in which the Malta boats anchor; the shore all round is very bold, especially to the south, where it rises into rugged and inaccessible cliffs, with huge masses of rock broken off from them and projecting into the sea; the road gradually winds from the sea to the fort (which is 500 feet above the shore) after a circuit of about 700 yards; the area on which the fortification is built being about 2,500 feet in circumference. The barracks accommodate 250 men, are admirably arranged, and there is a small but excellent hospital attached.

The Lieut. Governor resides near Migiarro, a small and insecure port, but the only one belonging to the island. A constant intercourse is kept up with Malta, the distance to Valetta by sea being 18 miles, although the two islands are within four miles from each other. The oblong islet of Comino, two miles in length, lying between the larger islands has a few inhabitants, employed in cultivating about 30 acres of land, and in preserving the numerous rabbits.

Besides Cominotto, which lies off the N.W. end of Comino, there are four or five other islets, or rather rocks, belonging to Malta and Gozo. On the S. coast of Malta is Filfola, or Filfla, which contains, it is said, an ancient parish church; nearer the shore, and more to the eastward, is a rock called the Pietra Nera; and at the N.W. end of the island, towards Gozo, is another rock, called the Scoglio Marfo. At the N. end of St. Paul's Bay is the Island of Salmonetta, but the best known of these appendages is the fungus rock of Gozo, or '*Hagira tal general,*' celebrated for its production of *Corallina Officinalis* (Linnæus), or Fungus Melitensis, so long at one time esteemed as a sovereign panacea for all the ills that flesh is heir to.

Geology and Soil.—The Commissioners sent by the Grand Master L'Isle Adam, in *1525*, to examine Malta previous to its acceptance from Charles V. by the Knights, de-

scribed it as a rock six or seven leagues long of sandstone, called *tufa;* the structure is now ascertained to be limestone of different species and of unequal density, though generally speaking remarkably soft, and crumbling down even under the action of the weather with great facility. Calcareous free-stone is more or less abundant, limestone generally lying on the freestone, and the latter incumbent on a bed of marl. Geologically considered Malta and Gozo belong to the tertiary aqueous formations either to the older or the newer Phocene of Lyall.

The stone of Malta, in relation to architectural purposes, is of two kinds principally, viz.: the hard and soft, of each of which there are many varieties; indeed one passes into the other by almost insensible gradation.

The hard stone is a species of coarse marble of crystalline structure, of specific gravity 2.5,—not absorbent of moisture, and not liable to decompose or disintegrate on exposure to the atmosphere. It consists almost entirely of carbonate of lime. It is well adapted to all works requiring strength, and particularly well fitted for pavements and floors. It is found in many parts of the island, generally near the surface.

The soft stone is a kind of free-stone, composed chiefly of carbonate of lime, of a variable though small proportion of alumine, and a trace of peroxide of iron, to which it owes its light fawn colour. It is absorbent of water:—a specimen tried by Dr. Davy immersed in water gained 11 per cent. It is very light; the same specimen was of specific gravity 1.9.—It is so soft that it is most easily cut, almost as readily as chalk. It is far more abundant than the hard kind. It is the common building stone, and is very durable if protected from the atmosphere; the purest kinds, those which contain least clay, are least liable to disintegrate on exposure; when used for flooring it requires to be oiled or painted.

It may be remarked that to the absorbent power of the soft free-stone for water, the lands of Malta owe very much their fertility; and so sensible are the natives of it, that it is a common practice occasionally to remove the soil from the

subjacent rock, and break up its surface to the depth of an inch or thereabouts, either generally or at intervals, in stripes; such a measure being found necessary in consequence of a deposition of carbonate of lime, which is apt to take place on the surface from the water percolating it, by which the minute pores are filled, and the rock, superficially, is rendered more or less impervious, thus preventing the admission of rain water in the winter, and its escape in the dry season. The Maltese soft stone is said to be highly useful in the manufacture of the best China; the sediment of the deposition in water being collected and formed into a mould like bricks.

Dr. Hennen describes a species of stone, of the nature of the 'Oalite' or 'Roestone of Bath,' which is principally employed in building: it is very general throughout the island, and so easily worked, that it can be cut with a hatchet or turned into various architectural ornaments in an appropriate apparatus, like an ordinary cutler's wheel; but if not judiciously used, it chips and exfoliates very rapidly. The masses are naturally laminated, and in buildings it is necessary to take care that the extremities of the laminæ and not their flat surface be presented to the action of the air. The sea air and the contact of sea water is peculiarly injurious to some of these stones; repeated exfoliations of a reticulated texture are thrown off from them until they are completely corroded, a process to be daily witnessed in those parts of the works about the harbour. This species, like the ordinary soft stone of Malta, is of a yellowish white colour, and so very impure, that, although it is carbonate of lime, it will not burn into quick lime, while the purer and harder carbonates afford a copious supply of this material, when subjected to the action of fire. By analysis made some years since by Dr. Naudi, professor of chemistry in the university, and a scientific English resident, it was found that alumina and magnesia existed in quantity in this building stone—in the softer sort *magnesia* was prevalent,—and *alum* in the harder: thus we see why the old palace of Boschetto, which was built in the end of the fifteenth century, of the latter stone, is much

less impaired than erections of a very modern date, in which the former has been employed.

Other species of stone, chiefly from the western side of the island, are very pure carbonates of lime, and so hard as to serve for pavements; some bear a high polish, and are employed for tables, chimney pieces, &c. &c., forming a pretty species of marble. This is principally found at St. Julian's, on the western coast. Alabaster is also found in some parts of both Malta and Gozo, but especially the latter. At Marsa Sirocco, to the southward of the island, are found blocks in detached pieces, of a blackish and reddish calcareous stone like lava; when rubbed they exhale, by Dolomieu's account, a strong smell, and when dissolved in sulphuric acid, a black oily scum of a similar smell floats on the surface.

Gypsum, both spicular and cuneiform, is frequently found. Iron pyrites is found in various clayey hills, especially in Gozo.

The *Soil*, like the rock of Malta, is almost entirely calcareous: a specimen collected by Dr. Davy in a barley-field near Citta Vecchia, consists of—91.0 carbonate of lime; 7.0 alumina, with a little siliceous sand and red oxide of iron; 1.5 vegetable matter; 0.5 hygrometric matter.

Considering the very small proportion of vegetable matter present in the soil, and the little humidity it contains, or is capable of containing, it is wonderfully fertile. Dr. Davy thinks it probable that this happy fertility depends on two circumstances chiefly, the great proportion of carbonate of lime in the best state of mechanical division in the soil, and the porous nature of the rocky substratum, which absorbs the rain like a sponge, and permits, during the dry season, of the slow exhalation of moisture.

In a communication which I have this year received from Dr. Davy, while that gentleman was inspector of hospitals there, he says it is not commonly the practice to form soil by breaking up rock; soil ready formed, lying in the hollows and crevices of rocks, is collected; the crevices are filled up with

fragments, the projecting rocks are removed, the surface is made as level as is easily practicable, and the soil collected is deposited on it: and thus, according to Carlo Giacinto, who has written an interesting little work on the agriculture of Malta, '*campi artificiali*' are formed. The soil of Malta is generally good as regards its quality, though in too many instances it is of little depth. Forty different specimens, collected in the neighbourhood of the different casals, on being examined, were found to be all composed principally of carbonate of lime; they varied chiefly in the proportion of clay, and in the proportion of peroxide of iron, to which they owe their colour. The dark red soils contained most of this oxide, and the largest proportion generally of alumine. The very light fawn-coloured abounded most in carbonate of lime, and contained only a just perceptible trace of the peroxide of iron. All the soils belonging to Malta, and also to Gozo, may be considered as coming under the denomination of calcareous marls, and, with very few exceptions, fall to powder under the influence of water.

In no instance did Dr. Davy meet with any siliceous soil, or any pure clay soil. The proportion of vegetable matter in the best soils is exceedingly minute, under one per cent.; and therefore requires much manuring. The productiveness of the territory, and its crops, will be found under the head of cultivation. No where in the island are there any traces of volcanic eruption, any hot springs (excepting two or three weak saline spas), or any trap rocks; portions of pumice is said to have been found in the freestone of Gozo. Whether Malta and Gozo were at one time joined together, as also at a more distant period in connection with Sicily, or otherwise, it is impossible to say positively; Dr. Davy thinks that the rocks and marls of both islands are very similar to the adjoining parts of Sicily, which are of the newer Phocene, but organic remains in sufficient numbers have not been collected as yet to solve the question; however, to throw further light on this interesting subject, as also to convey a more ample idea of the islands, I subjoin the following view of their phy-

sical geography, as drawn up by one of the knights of Malta, named Dolomieu.

'These three islands are calcareous rocks, which furnish very few objects worthy the attention of a naturalist. Indeed, some petrifactions and calcareous concretions are the only fossil productions which deserve a place in a cabinet of natural history. But as there is no single spot on the whole surface of the globe which does not afford some curious observations in cosmogony, nor even a heap of stones which has not some reference to the ancient history of our world, and which may not serve to give an idea of the theory of its original formation, the island of Malta, considered in that light, offers some interesting subjects deserving our attention.

'Malta, Comino, and Gozo, are evidently only the remains of a large tract of land which extended towards the S.S.W., and which, owing in all probability to the solidity of the soil, have resisted the violence that caused the destruction of the country, of which they originally made a part. Innumerable observations made on the spot, confirm this opinion, but at present it will be sufficient to prove the fact by some account of the physical formation of these islands.

'Malta becomes much narrower at the same time that it lengthens; from E.S.E. to W.N.W.; the islands of Comino and Gozo are placed successively in the same direction, and are separated by narrow straits.

'To have a just idea of Malta, we must figure to ourselves an inclined plane running from S.S.W. to N.N.E., in such a manner that the calcareous strata (nearly parallel), of which it is almost entirely composed, rise towards the S. and S.E. nearly 200 fathoms above the sea, which dashes against the bottom of these declivities. At the same time on the opposite side, they are of a considerable length, and decline insensibly, till they become level with the sea. The direction of these strata, together with their exact correspondence with the opposite parts, consisting of defiles and valleys, evidently show what was the real shape of the island, when the strata deposited by the sea ceased to accumulate; even since that

time it has undergone great vicissitudes. The regularity of this work has been changed, a great part of the upper stratum destroyed, and that vast body of regularly parallel strata so worn, hollowed and ploughed by the violence of the currents, that it is scarcely possible to trace—such is the disorder which reigns throughout the mountains, defiles, hills, and vales—the system which joins them together, and points out the origin of their formation.

'The broadest part of the island, the least wasted and the flattest, though sufficiently elevated, is that to the E. of the city of Valetta; it is consequently more peopled and easier cultivated, though here, as in all other places, the rock is entirely naked, except where the industry of the inhabitants has placed a layer of earth to encourage vegetation.

'The principal defiles and valleys run constantly from S.S.W. to N.E., which is their natural direction, for they have all been formed out of the rock by the violent currents of water washing from the heights. These valleys extend to that part of the sea where the coast is most level, and there form those fine ports which make this island so very important for trade and navigation. Smaller valleys have, in process of time, been formed, taking a contrary direction to the principal ones, and the united waters of these form the different ports which communicate with that of the city, which, with a gentle curve, extends into the valley of Marsa, of which it is a continuation.

'This valley, now the broadest, the most extensive, and fertile in the whole island, was formerly almost entirely sea; indeed, it is not very long since the tide came up as far as casal Fornaro, but the accretion of vegetable earth from the higher lands, the fragments of the surrounding rocks, the hand of the labourer, and above all, the influx of sand, &c., occasioned by the force of the sea when the wind is at N.E., have by degrees entirely filled it up. In a short time the bottom of the port will be equally filled, and might be still sooner, by making basins, into which the sea could be conveyed by dykes, and where, from its calm state, it would deposit that

matter which is kept back when the water is greatly agitated. The basin in the midst of a small plain, called little Marsa, is already nearly choked up, and that without any means having been employed for the purpose.

'The valleys are longer and deeper in proportion as they extend from E. to W. One, very wide, extends itself under the casals of Musta, and Nasciaro, and Gargur, and terminates at the port of the salt works. It is bounded to the right by a chain of craggy rocks which runs across the whole breadth of the island, and divides it into two parts. This boundary, formed by the hand of nature, has been made the means of defence to Malta, by intrenchments formed in the rocks, and seems to be regarded as such by the inhabitants; for beyond it, towards the W. there are no villages, and scarcely any cultivated land. The port or creek of Melleha penetrates so far into the inland country, that it almost divides the island, which is very narrow in that part, and there is every reason to believe that the straits which occasion Comino to be insular, are only the extension of two valleys, the upper of which has been destroyed; and such would be the state of the ports which flank the city of Valetta, if any circumstance should destroy the part of the island beyond Pieta and Casal Nuova.

'Gozo stands much higher than Malta, and is entirely surrounded by perpendicular rocks: the highest are to the W. and S., where they are tremendously steep. The opposite cliffs of Malta and Gozo are correspondent; but though there are some valleys in the same direction as those of Malta, they do not afford any ports, on account of the height of the land and its breadth.

'The country is not so uneven as at Malta, consequently more easily cultivated, and it appears that the surface was originally nearly horizontal. The rock, however, is decidedly of the same nature in both islands, which are equally mountainous, some single, some forming chains, the summits of which are, for the most part, flat. It is very evident that these summits made part of the original surface, when the

whole was incrusted by a stratum of a harder and heavier kind of stone of a closer grain, which is now never met with but in that elevated land which corresponds with the inclination of the strata. Some strata are also formed of a black ferruginous calcareous sand, slightly stuck together by a kind of calcareous lime.

'At the back of these rocks in Malta, and in the clefts of the mountains in Gozo, are heaps composed of grey clay, evidently no native of the soil, and which must have accumulated since the excavation of those mountains. It is found in hollows, which no doubt were formerly entirely empty. The above-mentioned heaps but feebly resisting the force of water rushing impetuously down their sides, the constant cataracts have made deep furrows in them, and modelled them into their present form.

'On summing up the preceding facts, the question may be fairly asked, from whence came the clay of Malta and Gozo? How could it possibly have got over the craggy rocks of the latter island unless they had both been formerly joined to a higher land, from whence this clay descended, or unless, by an imperceptible declivity, it had been driven by the sea into its present situation? Whence likewise came the red clay, a kind of virgin earth, which fills up the vertical clefts in the rocks? The water which formed these valleys must have been in great abundance, since it had sufficient force to wear away a rock, which, though not very hard, must still have offered some degree of resistance.

'This island, such as it is at present, could never have produced such considerable torrents, for, after the heaviest rains in winter, there are scarcely more than some small temporary rivulets, and those in the lowest part of the valleys. The perpendicular rocks could not naturally have existed in a mass formed by the successive accumulation of sand from the sea. The same strata which we perceive in these rocks must have extended till they had met with a declivity, or a curve to reconduct them to a level with the bottom of the sea. There cannot be a doubt but that the island of Malta made formerly

part of a mountain, which had the same declivities and valleys on the other side. The rocks, its boundaries to the S., E., and W. could have been formed only by the falling in and destruction of what made their sides, particularly as the sea is extremely deep at the basis of them. In the whole circumference of the three islands, evident marks of corrosion may be perceived. The rocks at some distance from the coast are the mere remains of that part which has been destroyed. In fine, the shape of these islands, all the local circumstances, and a variety of phenomena, decidedly prove that there must have been a great extent of land towards the S. and W., and that it must have been destroyed by some very violent cause out of the common course of nature. It appears that this destructive shock came from the W., and that it acted with the greatest force against every thing adjoining to the island of Gozo. According to our knowledge of natural history, and the causes which produce such extraordinary effects, we can only attribute the present state of things to an immense body of water, which, being agitated by an earthquake, carried away the first land which it met with on its passage, by which means Gozo is become of a circular form, and clefts are excavated at the foot of the rocks which offered most resistance, such as those which form Cape San Dimitri. It also destroyed that part of the mountain which united the three islands, and this inundation has stripped them of all vegetable earth, of which only some small patches remain in the clefts of rocks, where it was sheltered from the fury of the waves. The island of Gozo was so situated as to defend Malta, and by that means the northern coast has not undergone such changes as the southern. A variety of observations made in Sicily and Italy prove, that an extraordinary motion in that mass of water had taken place, and the most terrible effects were produced; but to enter into more minute particulars would interfere with the plan of this work.

'The facts we have now pointed out may be known and verified by all who will attend to the circumstances; but what must still remain matter of conjecture, is the original extent

of this land, its relation with the continent of Africa, and the time when the convulsion took place.

'I believe, that since Malta was first inhabited, the island has in some degree diminished. This seems proved by the marks of wheels, which may be traced close to the above mentioned cliffs. Rocks likewise frequently fall in, owing either to the sea working its way under them, or to the incidental destruction of the lower strata.

'The soft kind of stone in Malta and Gozo is always more or less inclined to waste and dissolve when exposed to the air; it also undergoes a kind of saline efflorescence, which reduces it to powder, and this effect is hastened by different accidents and particular situations. The stones exposed to the air towards the south are much sooner dissolved than in any other aspect, but nothing wastes them in so short a time as the sea-water, one single drop of which suffices to rot them presently; and, though only one stone should be touched, it frequently communicates itself to the next, and by this means speedily destroys, not only a whole rock, but a whole building, if a stone thus affected should happen to be employed in its construction. A sort of saline crust, composed of nitre, with alkali at bottom and sea salt, is formed over the stone, part of which is no sooner crumbled to powder, than the crust drops off, and others continue forming till the whole of the stone is entirely destroyed. This effect, I believe, is principally produced by the humidity which the sea-water, with earthy particles at the bottom contained in sea-water, always attracts; and this humidity is the principal vehicle for the production of nitre, if at the same time other circumstances concur for that purpose. I have already observed that the stones most liable to this spontaneous destruction are those which contain the most magnesia, from which this soft kind is never entirely free.

'In the craggy rocks round Malta and Gozo are many spacious caves or grottoes, some of which being on a level with the sea, the waves dash in when in an agitated state, and resound tremendously. The mouths of others are at different

heights, and the access is more or less difficult and dangerous, according to their situation; there are some, indeed, in order to enter which, it is necessary to be suspended by ropes. One of the most considerable of those usually visited, is situated towards the point of land called Benghisa, near the Marsa Sirocco creek. This, from its length and breadth, is distinguished by the name of the *Great*, and it extends more than 200 paces underground.

'All these grottoes are full of stalactites and stalagmites, produced by the water filtering through the calcareous rock. The falling in of one of these caverns must have caused the singular excavation called Makluba, near Casal Zurrico, which certainly deserves to be seen. At the distance of 100 paces to the south of the shore, and not far from the rocks on the coast, there is a circular, or rather an oval cavity, more than 100 feet in depth, and formed like an imperfect cone. The larger diameter of the lower plain is about 95 paces, and that of the smaller one 80, but the opening is less than 20 paces. This excavation is in those shelving cliffs which incline a little from S. to N., and have hitherto suffered no change, but have remained exactly as if this, in part, circular space, had been the work of art.

'On examining the state of the lower ranges of rock, I remarked, that they were corroded in the same manner as the others exposed to the fury of the waves. The surface of them is unequal and hollow, but they have, notwithstanding, a sort of polish, and a harder coat than the rest of the stone, whereas the upper ledges have suffered the same degree of corrosion which affects all the Maltese rocks when exposed to the air, and which is very different from the basis. There is a great depth of vegetable earth in the lower plain; but though they have frequently dug very low, they have never been able to find a bottom. All these circumstances infallibly prove, that the great hollow was occasioned by the falling in of a vast cavern which communicated with the sea, and the time when this happened cannot have been very remote. Above the space which has sunk in, there appears to have

been some habitation, for there is a well 50 feet deep in the part of the rock, into which stairs have been made to descend. It was formerly deeper, but has been since filled up by earth from the neighbouring hills, the mouth of this excavation being situated in a kind of small valley. The word Makluba signifies *overturned.*

'There are blocks and detached pieces of a blackish and reddish calcareous stone to be found in different places in Malta, particularly in the part of Benghisa, near Marsa Sirocco. These have a false appearance of *lava,* or of burnt stone with small pores, and when rubbed, exhale a very strong and disagreeable smell. On being dissolved by means of acids, there remains swimming on the top a black oily scum, which occasions the disagreeable smell. This *lapis suillus* has certainly been impregnated with the oil of some cetaceous fish. I am ignorant whether there are any particular strata composed of it.'

The following is an enumeration of the principal fossils of Malta and Gozo, originally drawn up by M. Dolomieu, and corrected in the little work of St. Priest, translated by Boisgelin:—

'1. *Pyrites Martiales* and *Conchæ pyritosæ martiales,* found in different clayey hills, particularly in one near the town of Gozo. When these fossils were first discovered, it was imagined they made part of a gold mine, and some speculators threw away their money in making experiments; but the hopes they had cherished of great riches, presently vanished into air.

'2. *Gypsum* in those forms which are commonly called *cuneiform* and *spicular* gypsum: this is formed in separate spots in the same clay; the pieces are sometimes very large, but seldom regularly crystallized.

'3. Calcareous alabaster. Those of Gozo are yellow, slightly veined, and sometimes semi-transparent, like the antique alabaster. They are also hard and compact, and there are lumps, and blocks sufficiently large to make pillars and urns of a great size, if they were worked for that purpose,

but hitherto nothing has been made but tables. Alabaster is found in Gozo on the top of mountains, and it is observable that it forms itself by accretion in those cavities which accident has wrought in the common calcareous mass. The Maltese alabaster exists in large blocks, separated from each other on the sea-coast; the top and middle of the calcareous stone are brown, with circular veins. This is not so hard and compact as the yellow kind, and is liable to a variety of incidental imperfections, such as being full of cavities, and earthy, stony parts, which prevent its being employed for works of any magnitude, &c. It derives its dusky colour from a thick and oily sort of matter.

'4. A variety of calcareous stalactites formed in grottoes. These are real alabaster in concentric beds.

'5. Remains of the back and jaw-bones of various cetaceous animals. These have been found in the calcareous mass in many parts of the two islands, and in a bed of calcareous, ferruginous and black sand, which has given them a tinge of the same colour. These, however, are scarce; they are partly petrified, that is to say, a calcareous lapidifical moisture has penetrated into the bony texture.

'6. *Glossopetra*, or more properly, *odontopetra*, or fish-teeth of different shapes and sizes, the greater part of which belonged to the phoca, or sea-cow, the shark, different sorts of sea-dogs, and to some particular species of skate. Part of these teeth are indented at the edge, and part entirely smooth; the largest are seven inches long, of a flat triangular form, with a bifurcated or two-fanged root; there are others only one inch in length, pointed, almost conical, with roots also bifurcated, and shaped like birds' and serpents' tongues. Most of these teeth have preserved their grey and shining enamel in such a manner, that the filtration could not penetrate through them; they are therefore not petrified in the inside, and have not lost their bony texture. Those roots which have not been guarded from the filtration are become stony.

'*Odontopetra* are common in Malta, and particularly in Gozo,

where they are found enclosed and scattered about in the soft stone of these islands. I have never heard whether a jaw-bone was ever discovered with this kind of teeth.

'7. *Crapaudina bufonitæ*, or serpents' eyes. These are likewise odontopetra or fish-teeth of a hemispherical, conical, or oval form. They belonged to the gilt-head and other fish of the same kind; they are whitish, grey, yellow, black, or with concentric circles of different colours. These teeth are of different sizes, from one line to four in diameter; they are concave within, and are in a half state of petrifaction. There are great numbers in Malta, but those only with concentric zones are in any estimation, and the large ones of that kind are very scarce.

8. *Odontopetra* which belonged to the *hippopotamus* or river horse. These were the grinders of those animals, and are almost all square with obtuse conical eminences; there are some eight inches on the surface, but they are seldom found entire. The part which has no enamel is petrified. This kind of *odontopetra* is far from common.

9. *Asteria, entrochitæ*, and other detached parts of the vertebræ of the encrinus.

10. Echinites of different shapes and sizes. The most remarkable are the hemispherical, some of which are seven inches in diameter; others, equally large, are pentagonal, pyramidal, or shaped like an imperfect pyramid. Some are almost round, others are compressed and almost flat, and all are distinguished by names analogous to their shape. These large *echinites* are changed into calcareous spar of a yellow or white colour; the inside is either empty or filled with a white or yellow earth, according to the colour of the outside of the spar. The *echinites* are found in pretty large quantities in the craggy parts of Malta, in the soft stone, or in those beds of black sand which are but weakly agglutinated.

There is a great variety of *echinites* of a smaller size, such as the *gobulares*, the *spatagoidæi*, or shaped like a heart, the clunicunares, natiformes, &c. The exterior part is changed into white spar, and the inside filled with the same calcareous

white and tender stone, in which they are found in such great quantities. Some among them are much squeezed, but the greatest number have preserved the same shape and position, as in the sea.

Fragments of echinites are also found in Malta; these are shaped like shields, and are called *assulæ, quinquangulares, hexangulares, mammillares, orbiculares, &c.;* likewise pieces of small bones of the same fish, but no Judea stones.

11. Numbers of fossil shells of different families, some of which have the upper part half petrified, whilst the impression of others only remains. The only remarkable ones among the former are the *dentalites,* or sea tubes, two inches thick, and frequently many feet in length. When they are in a circular form they resemble petrified serpents. *Ostracites* shaped like cocks' combs, and some very large *pectinites* with and without ears.

The impressions of shells are either black or white, according to the colour of the earth. The most remarkable are the *dactilites* and *pholadites.* The impression of the inside of a small *terebratula,* which is exactly of the shape, size, and colour of hemp-seed; there are great quantities in the rocks near Casal Gargur.

Many of these fossils are found in the hills and mountains near the old city, where there are banks almost entirely composed of them. All the rocks in the island likewise contain some of the same kind.

12. And lastly, quantities of *lithophytæ* and *madriporites* of different sorts and sizes, among which there is nothing very remarkable; they are found in the steep part of the rocks towards the south, and particularly near a place called Bahria; some large rocks are entirely composed of them, and near them other rocks full of *ostracites.*

Climate and Diseases. The climate of Malta is decidedly warm, indeed almost tropical; the *maximum* temperature for the year may be taken at 90° F., the *minimum* at 46°, and the mean at 63° F. The barometer may be similarly quoted at 38.8, 30.2, and 30.5. The hygrometer 87, 30, and 58½. The

heat of the summer is doubtless increased by radiation of the solar rays from the rocks surrounding Valetta; but in the country around, and in Gozo in particular, the atmosphere is from 2° to 4° cooler.

As I observed, and indeed proved, in my first volume, thermometrical observations do not afford a fair mode of judging of the sensible effects of heat; we must connect therewith the state of the winds and moisture of the air. The most prevalent winds are the S. E. (the Sirocco), and the N.W.; the former characterised by its humidity, accompanied by an exhausting degree of temperature, producing a damp and suffocating smell to the sick; these Siroccos are most prevalent in August, September, and October. The N.E. wind ('*gregale*'), is brief and violent in its duration, frequently occasioning serious mischief in the harbour during the winter months.

Occasionally sudden and partial gusts of intensely heated air are felt in Malta, which are blown from the coast of Africa; fortunately they seldom exceed half a minute in duration, for if longer continued life would be extinguished, owing to the severity of the heat, which is remarkable for blowing in tracts, affecting the inhabitants of one house and not their neighbours;—it is probably a portion of the 'Samiel' or 'Simoom' of Africa. When dry wind blows over the island, especially in summer, volumes of impalpable dust float about, which is precipitated in the shape of a shower of mud, on the recurrence of a damp wind, or when the fogs and dews are peculiarly long.

No regular sea and land breezes are felt in Malta, by which the heat would be moderated; and it is a remarkable fact that Capt. Smyth found the temperature of the sea round the adjacent shores of Sicily at a depth of 10 to 20 fathoms 73° to to 76° F. which was 10 or 12 degrees warmer than the water outside of the straits of Gibraltar. Snow only appears at Malta as a luxury imported from Etna, but in the winter months there are frequent hail showers; rain falls with tropical violence in December, January, and part of February;

about March the sky gets settled, an occasional shower may fall in April and May, but during June, July, and August, not a cloud is to be seen: September and October are cooled with showers, the air is placid and invigorating, and termed 'St. Martins,' or the 'little summer.'

The effects of thunder and lightning are not severely experienced, though the electric discharge is loud and frequent, and during the summer and autumn nights the sky is brilliantly illuminated with bright corruscations, resembling the Aurora Borealis of northern climes.

The following remarks on the winds and climate of Malta, as observed by Dolomieu in 1783, are equally applicable to the present, and they bear out my remarks in the preceding volumes of this work, that the range of temperature is of less consequence to the animal frame than the winds.

'Reaumur's thermometer in Malta during the summer is generally below 25°, and scarcely ever above 28°. In winter it is very seldom lower than 8° below the freezing point.

'Heat and cold are most felt when the thermometer is at either of the two extreme points of our temperature, for there is an almost constant contrast between our sensations and the instrument which measures the true temperature of the air, between sensible and real heat.

'The different directions of the wind produce an instantaneous change from cold to heat, and from heat to cold. North or northwest winds always occasion cold, and a south wind constantly brings heat. The violence with which they blow modifies the sensations they cause, and those produced by these winds become still stronger, because the atmosphere they put in motion is analogous to what we feel from real heat and extreme cold.

'A north-west wind purifies the air in the greatest degree; a N.E. wind is not quite so pure, and it becomes infinitely less so when it changes to the S.E., or the S., but it grows rather better when it veers to the S.W., particularly if the sea be much agitated.

'The N.W. wind is purified by the vast expanse of sea

which it passes over; but the N. wind would suffer some degree of alteration from Italy and Sicily, if the great vegetation in those fine countries did not tend to purify the atmosphere. When the wind changes to the S. it becomes dangerous, owing to its having passed over the barren burning continent of Africa, where there is scarcely any vegetation, and where the heat is so intense, that every thing susceptible of rarefaction in the earth produces exhalations which enter into the atmosphere. It is not purified by passing over the sea, because the channel is narrow, and being sheltered by the land, the water is not sufficiently agitated to absorb by its motion the mephitic miasmata with which the air is impregnated.

'The extreme cold during winter is produced by the pure air which blows from the N. The winds act upon us by their great violence, which continually renews the volume of air that surrounds us.

'The cold thus produced is easily avoided by not exposing ourselves to the constant currents of air and violence of the wind.

'In summer, when the wind blows from the S.E., the usual purity of the air is so greatly altered, that were it to change a few degrees more, it would be impossible to breathe, and the insensible perspiration of the body would form so thick an atmosphere, that suffocation must infallibly ensue.

'The S. winds never blow long at a time, seldom lasting more than three or four days. They are frequently succeeded by a calm, during which the heat is also very great, but much less oppressive and suffocating, though the thermometer frequently shews a much higher degree of real heat; the air is then infinitely more pure, and the sea breezes during the night and indeed some part of the day, greatly refresh the atmosphere. This air is purified by passing over the water, which it gently agitates. There is also a morning and land breeze, which, though less pure, cool the air in some degree. When the wind changes suddenly from the S. to N., we feel an astonishing lightness, our sensations are inexpressibly pleasant, and we breathe with the greatest freedom.

'Nothing is more salutary during the sirocco than iced beverages; they revive the spirits, strengthen the body, and assist digestion. Snow is therefore considered at Malta as one of the first necessaries of life; it is brought from Sicily and administered to the sick. Whenever there is a scarcity of this article, all that remains in the ice houses is entirely reserved for the use of the hospitals.'

Diseases.—Malta, though strictly speaking without any marshy exhalations, has abundance of all the ills to which flesh is heir. Dr. Hennen endeavours to prove that fever is the prevalent malady on the following data.

The following is a statement of the admissions, discharges, and deaths by fever in the Civil Hospital for three years:—*

Return of Admissions, Discharges, and Deaths, of Cases of Fever in the Civil Hospital of Malta, for the Years 1821, 1822, and 1823.

Class of Hospital.	1821.			1822.			1823.			Total.			Remarks.
	Admitted.	Discharged.	Died.	Admitted.	Discharged.	Died.	Admitted.	Discharged.	Died.	Admitted.	Discharged.	Died.	
Male	262	220	35	243	207	28	292	242	39	797	669	102	Mortality on an average of 3 years.
Female	138	110	22	134	97	34	184	150	34	456	357	90	Male, 1 in $7\frac{8}{10}\frac{3}{2}$ Female, 1 in $5\frac{6}{9}$
Maltese Fencibles	15	13	..	5	5	..	27	25	2	47	43	2	Soldiers, 1 in $23\frac{1}{2}$
Total....	415	343	57	382	309	62	503	417	75	1300	1069	194	Total, 1 in $6\frac{1}{1}\frac{3}{9}\frac{6}{4}$

It is to be remarked, that among the deaths many have occurred in aged paupers, brought from the 'Ospizio,' and it is also to be kept in mind that the worst cases of disease found their way to the civil hospital.

The admissions of fever cases into the Civil Hospital during the three years were, we perceive, by the above return, 1,300. The total admissions for the same period were 8,736—so that fever has been to all other diseases very nearly in the proportion of one to seven.

On referring to the returns of deaths among the natives not in the hospital, I find that the proportion of fevers must have been very large, for the deaths must have been as follows:—

* The different species of fever are not enumerated in the documents. Remittents and intermittents are of annual occurrence among the resident inhabitants, and in considerable numbers, although their relative proportion is not noted. It has, indeed, been suggested by those who are unwilling to allow that diseases of marsh origin are endemic in Malta, that the principal number of these diseases are caught in Sicily, and are thence transferred by boats' crews. It certainly does happen that such persons have occasionally caught remittent fever while in Sicily; but it is as certain that a large proportion of the men, women, and children who suffer from the disease in Malta, have never been beyond the precincts of their native island in their lives.

	Fevers.	Total Deaths.
In the year 1818	263	2,330
1819	260	2,029
1820	223	2,297
1821	180	1,912
1822	247	2,310
1823	273	2,566
Giving a total of	1,446	13,444

Or the deaths by fever bore to the deaths of all other diseases the proportion of one to ten nearly.

Comparative View of Deaths by Fever among the Inhabitants of the Island of Malta for six years, between 1818 and 1823 inclusive.

Towns and Villages.	Population.	Deaths by Fever in						Total.	Proportion of Deaths to Population.
		1818	1819	1820	1821	1822	1823		
Valetta and Floriana ...	25,546	76	87	65	49	50	42	369	1 in $69\frac{79}{369}$
Vittoriosa, Cospicua, and Senglea.....	18,649	54	48	37	22	37	25	223	1 in $83\frac{140}{223}$
Notabile and Dingli	5,166	16	8	11	3	14	11	63	1 in 82
Zebug.....	4,776	10	10	13	9	14	16	72	1 in $66\frac{1}{2}$
Siggieni.....	3,373	8	5	11	6	2	12	44	1 in $76\frac{29}{44}$
Crendi.....	1,052	3	2	2	1	2	1	11	1 in $95\frac{7}{11}$
Micabiba	814	5	4	2	2	1	2	16	1 in $50\frac{7}{8}$
Zurrico	3,618	8	9	7	11	12	18	65	1 in $55\frac{43}{65}$
Safi.....	227	2	..	1	..	1	..	4	1 in $56\frac{3}{4}$
Chircop.....	315	2	..	..	1	..	..	3	1 in 105
Asciach.....	1,136	7	1	3	1	4	2	18	1 in $63\frac{1}{9}$
Gudia.....	1,040	..	3	4	2	6	..	15	1 in $69\frac{1}{3}$
Zeitun	5,440	8	18	13	31	18	18	101	1 in $53\frac{87}{101}$
Zabbar	3,537	5	7	9	3	13	16	53	1 in $66\frac{39}{53}$
Tarxien.....	1,011	4	1	..	1	2	2	10	1 in $101\frac{1}{10}$
Luca	1,268	8	6	2	2	3	3	24	1 in $52\frac{5}{6}$
Curmi.....	4,130	11	18	10	7	7	12	65	1 in $63\frac{35}{65}$
Birchircara	5,253	10	10	8	3	14	17	62	1 in $84\frac{45}{62}$
Balzan	633	3	2	4	..	3	2	14	1 in $45\frac{3}{14}$
Lia	1,039	1	2	6	6	2	13	30	1 in $34\frac{19}{30}$
Attard	907	2	..	..	..	..	7	9	1 in $100\frac{7}{9}$
Musta.....	3,369	9	10	8	9	20	38	94	1 in $35\frac{79}{94}$
Nasciaro.....	2,963	8	8	5	7	18	16	62	1 in $47\frac{51}{62}$
Gargur	1,139	3	1	2	4	3	5	18	1 in $63\frac{5}{18}$
Total....	96,404	263	260	223	180	246	273	1,445	1 in $66\frac{1034}{1445}$

Ophthalmia forms, in Dr. Hennen's estimation, one of the important complaints of the island, but in the returns of the civil hospital, no more than 324 cases of the disease appear to have been treated during the course of three years. They are as follows:—

	1821.	1822.	1823.	Total.
Males . .	40	28	51	119
Females . .	56	51	50	157
Soldiers . .	24	4	20	48
Total . .	120	83	121	324

The admissions from ophthalmia have not borne a greater proportion to the admissions of other diseases, than about one in 27; and Mr. Portelli, Professor of Anatomy and Surgery to the hospital, states, that he has never had more than ten or twelve patients labouring under the disease at one time. The fact is, that the natives who are subject to ophthalmia treat it but lightly; they are often seen walking about the streets with the disease upon them; and except it arises to a very aggravated pitch, they do not deem it of sufficient consequence to warrant an application at the hospital, but treat it with the domestic remedies within their reach. In one form or other ophthalmia appears every year both in Malta and Gozo, and generally commences and terminates about the same autumnal period.

It appears principally among the lower orders, and of them the women and children are most frequently and most severely afflicted. There is every reason to suppose, that those diseases principally proceed from the united influence of the excessive heat of the atmosphere, the great glare of the sun reflected from the rocks and numerous buildings, and the vast quantity of dust blowing about in all directions; while, during the night, the atmosphere is often particularly damp, from the copious depositions of dew, to the effect of which the lower orders are fully exposed, as they sleep frequently in the open air, and always with the head uncovered; in addition to which the sirocco winds of autumn are peculiarly damp of themselves.

In Egypt, suppression of perspiration, and exposure of the head to the damp night air, after the eyes have been subjected all the day to the action of the heat, light, and dust, are satisfactorily proved by Assalini, Larrey, and others, to have been the most frequent causes of the disease. In Aleppo, a climate which, in so many points resembles Malta, the ophthalmia, both of adults and children, is met with at all seasons; but it constantly becomes so frequent in the months of August and September, that there are few years in which, at least, one-sixth of the inhabitants are not more or less affected with it. Dr. Russell, adopts the popular opinion, that it proceeds from the night dews, which, though in small quantities, sometimes fall at those seasons of the year, and from which the natives who sleep in the open air have no canopy to shelter them. Europeans who sleep in field beds, protected by a thick covering at top, besides curtains, are exempt from this malady, but have been seized with it upon lying exposed in the manner of the natives. In some years the ophthalmia rages with destructive malignancy.

After the disease once attacks, it leaves a great liability in the weakened organ to suffer from its recurrence, and hence there are, at this day, in Malta, numbers who are affected with ophthalmia annually without any obvious cause; others can trace it to damp, cold, dust, &c.; while others suffer in the same manner as Assalini's Maltese servant, who was attacked 'every time that he slept in the open air.'

The number of blind that are daily met with in the streets seems to countenance the idea, that the success in treating the disease does not bear a very flattering proportion to its frequency.

During the whole of the first winter the French army passed in Malta, their soldiers suffered extremely from night blindness; the succeeding year, however, the complaint existed, but in a very trifling degree.*

Bowel Affections.—Next to fever, the most prevalent dis-

* Boisgelin, vol. ii., p. 142. Assalini, p. 127.

eases among the natives are affections of the bowels and pulmonary complaints.

The number of deaths under the heads 'Diarrhœa' and 'Dysentery,' bear a very large proportion to the total mortality; in six years they have amounted to nearly a seventh of the entire.

Pulmonary Affections.—The deaths by pulmonary affections are also very numerous; they are classed under six different heads in the bills of mortality, viz. cough, consumption, hæmoptysis, phthisis pulmonalis, pleuritis and pulmonic.

Summary View of the Deaths by Pulmonary Affections among the Natives, throughout the Island of Malta, from the Year 1818 to the Year 1823 inclusive, exclusive of Deaths in the Hospitals.

Class.	1818.	1819.	1820.	1821.	1822.	1823.	Total.
Cough	15	76	38	54	209	116	508
Consumption	143	91	122	173	373	220	1122
Hæmoptysis	8	7	5	4	5	7	36
Phthisis Pulmonalis	78	67	63	85	90	67	450
Pleuritis	8	5	16	8	9	3	49
Pulmonic	50	33	37	31	30	30	211
Total	302	279	281	355	716	443	2376

In the civil hospital, the admissions from pulmonary complaints are numerous, and the proportional mortality considerable, as appears by the following table:—

Summary View of the Admissions and Deaths from Pulmonary Complaints in the Civil Hospital of Malta, from 1821 to 1823 inclusive.

Class.	Males.						Females.						Native Soldiers.						Remarks.
	1821.		1822.		1823.		1821.		1822.		1823.		1821.		1822.		1823.		
	Admitted.	Died.	Admitted.	Died.	Admitted.	Died.	Admitted.	Died.	Admitted.	Died.	Admitted.	Died.	Admitted.	Died.	Admitted.	Died.	Admitted.	Died.	
Cough & Catarrh	99	25	90	14	90	23	71	14	69	10	53	8	2	..	2	..	1	..	Total admissions, 731
Consumption	4	2	..	..	3	2	9	6	6	5	5	3	..	..	..	..	..	..	— deaths, 180
Hæmoptysis	12	1	8	2	15	1	6	..	5	..	9	1	..	..	..	..	..	..	— proportional mortality, 1 in $4\frac{11}{180}$
Pleuritis	19	..	19	2	14	..	10	..	13	12	17	1	1	..	1	..	1	..	
Phthisis Pulmon.	4	4	1	..	7	5	7	4	7	5	11	6	..	..	..	..	..	..	Mortality of males, 1 in $4\frac{41}{91}$
Pulmonic	7	4	9	4	4	3	5	4	6	5	9	5	..	..	..	..	..	..	
Total	145	36	127	22	133	39	108	28	106	37	104	24	3	..	3	..	2	..	— females, 1 in $3\frac{41}{89}$
																			— soldiers. No deaths

The rarity of pulmonary affections among the native soldiers is striking. There appear to be two reasons for this: first, the selection of soldiers is made from the healthiest young natives; and when unfit for duty as soldiers, they are at once discharged, and replaced by sound, healthy men; and secondly, they have no night duties on the works to perform, nor are any subject to drills, &c. as British troops are; indeed, all the diseases of these men are slight and simple, consisting principally of fever, venereal, and opthalmia.

Without reckoning at all on the deaths under the head 'Consumption,' we perceive, by referring to the first of the above tables, that the diseases purely pulmonic have formed nearly one-eleventh of the whole mortality among the natives, and of this proportion phthisis pulmonalis has given more than one-third.

This fatal disease, as it occurs among the natives, is rapid in its course, and, as in Italy and other parts of the continent, it is considered, both by the medical men and the inhabitants, to be contagious; hence the greatest precautions are taken to purify the chambers of the sick, while the bedding, which they have used during their illness, and all the furniture of their rooms, are invariably burned.*

The village of Zurrico, which lies high, and the air of which is dry and pure, is reputed to be a very unfavourable situation for persons with diseased lungs, and not without reason. One-tenth of the deaths under the head 'cough,' occurred at Zurrico; and, on summing up all the pulmonary diseases, a twentieth of them appears to have taken place there—certainly a striking proportion.

Tænia and other worms are so frequent, that they are scarcely considered sources of disease. The inhabitants assert, that they are much more subject to intestinal worms of all kinds now than formerly; and they attribute it to their supply of corn no longer coming from Sicily, but from Odessa

* I am informed that the catarrh which raged last year at Gibraltar was considered to be contagious.

and Egypt, the grain from which places, they imagine, contains the germ of the worm.

Convulsions and other infantile diseases are extremely frequent among the children, and carry off great numbers.

Hernia is a disease of such common occurrence, that a surgeon in full practice has estimated that nearly one-third of his acquaintance were affected. Hydrocele is also a very common disease. Bowel complaints are not unfrequent, especially among new comers.* Affections of the liver are very prevalent, under various forms, although not so generally fatal as the other classes of disease. Stone in the bladder is occasionally met with, and it is remarkable, that it has been found to occur chiefly among the inhabitants of the village of Birchircara: this village lies rather low, at the head of the valley of Missida; a fiumare runs through it, but there appears to be nothing peculiar in its waters.

The foregoing data are derived from Dr. Hennen's reports to the Army Medical Board, but they are at considerable variance with the following documents transmitted me during the present year by the Governor of Malta, and which I subjoin without further comment, as they are given with a view to afford materials for an extended inquiry as to the duration of human life in different countries and climates, and under dissimilar or similar circumstances. I commence with the military returns, as they extend over a period of eleven years.

* Acute Dysentery, Cholera Morbus, and Diarrhœa, from 1816 to 1822.

Diseases.	Number of Admissions Monthly.												Total Admissions.	Total died.	Proportional Mortality.
	January.	February.	March.	April.	May.	June.	July.	August.	September.	October.	November.	December.			
Acute Dysentery	35	19	21	18	18	37	52	50	67	75	111	61	561	27	1 in $20\frac{8}{9}$
Cholera Morbus -	3	1	2	5	8	10	26	13	17	13	6	2	106	2	1 in 53
Diarrhœa - - -	45	31	32	28	45	84	128	158	174	167	129	65	1086	10	1 in $108\frac{3}{5}$
Total - -	83	51	55	51	71	131	206	221	258	255	246	128	1756	39	1 in $45\frac{1}{39}$

Return of Deaths amongst the British Troops in the command of Malta, during a period of Ten Years, viz. from 1825 to 1834 inclusive.

Diseases.	1825	1826	1827	1828	1829	1830	1831	1832	1833	1834	Total.
Febris Quot. Interm.	..	..	..	..	..	1	..	..	..	..	1
—— Remittens	..	..	..	1	..	..	..	..	3	10	14
—— Cont. Com.	5	6	3	5	1	5	7	2	1	4	39
—— Synochus	..	..	1	1	..	..	..	..	..	..	2
Delirium Tremens	..	..	..	..	..	1	..	..	..	3	4
Phlegmon et Abscessus	..	..	..	..	..	2	..	..	..	1	3
Phrenitis	1	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	1
Pneumonia	..	1	1	..	..	2	10	3	6	2	25
Peritonitis	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	2	1	3
Enteritis	1	..	..	3	..	..	..	..	..	..	4
Hepatites Acuta	..	1	..	..	2	1	..	..	..	..	4
—— Chronica	1	2	..	1	2	1	1	3	1	..	12
Rheumatismus Acutus	3	..	..	2	..	..	1	..	..	1	7
—— Chronicus	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	1	..	1
Variola	..	..	..	..	..	2	..	..	..	..	2
Scarlatina	1	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	1
Erysipelas	..	..	2	..	..	..	..	1	..	..	3
Hæmoptysis	..	..	..	1	..	..	..	..	..	..	1
Hæmatemesis	..	1	..	..	..	..	..	..	1	..	2
Phthisis Pul. Tub.	4	6	5	3	9	5	8	4	10	12	66
Catarrhus Acutus	..	..	..	..	1	2	..	..	1	2	6
—— Chronicus	..	2	..	..	4	1	4	1	2	1	15
Dysenteria Acuta	3	3	3	4	5	11	5	4	2	3	43
—— Chronica	1	..	..	..	1	2	1	1	..	..	6
Apoplexia	1	1	..	1	..	1	2	..	1	1	8
Paralysis	..	..	..	1	..	..	..	..	..	..	1
Dyspepsia	..	..	..	..	..	..	1	..	..	..	1
Epilepsia	..	..	1	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	1
Dyspnœa Cont.	1	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	2	3
Colica	..	..	..	..	1	..	..	..	..	1	2
Cholera Morbus	..	..	..	..	..	..	2	..	..	..	2
Diarrhœa	1	1	1	2	3	3	1	..	..	1	13
Amentia	..	..	..	..	..	..	1	1	..	..	2
Mania	..	..	..	..	..	..	1	..	..	..	1
Anasarca	..	1	..	..	..	1	..	2	..	..	4
Ascites	1	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	1	..	2
Scrophula	..	1	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	1
Hydarthrus	..	1	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	1
Icterus	1	..	..	..	..	1	..	..	..	1	3
Dysuria	..	1	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	1
Vulnus Incisum	..	2	..	..	3	..	1	..	..	..	6
Contusiæ	..	..	..	..	..	1	1	..	1	..	3
Fractura	..	..	1	2	..	..	..	1	1	1	6
Hæmorrhagia	..	..	1	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	1
Total	25	30	19	27	32	43	47	23	34	47	327
Sudden Deaths, &c.											
Hæmoptysis	..	..	..	..	..	..	1	..	..	..	1
Syncope	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	1	..	..	1
Aneurisma	..	..	..	..	1	1	1	1	1	1	6
Apoplexia	1	..	..	4	1	1	..	2	1	1	11
Hæmaternesis	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	1	1
Fractura	1	1	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	2
Contusia	..	..	1	..	..	..	..	1	..	..	2
Vulnus Sclopitarium	..	..	..	..	..	..	1	..	..	..	1
Suicides	1	..	1	1	2	4	..	1	2	2	14
Drowned	1	..	..	..	..	1	..	..	..	..	2
Suffocation	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	1	1
Suffered the penalty of the Law	..	..	..	..	..	..	1	..	..	..	1
Total	4	1	2	5	4	7	4	6	4	6	43
Average strength of Command	2036	2610	1776	2667	2291	2406	2094	2118	2117	2364	

Numerical Return of Men sent home to be discharged the Service, or for change of Climate, from the Malta command, during Ten Years, viz. from 1825 to 1834 inclusive.

Diseases.	1825	1826	1827	1828	1829	1830	1831	1832	1833	1834	Total.
Febris Quot. Interm.	..	..	..	..	7	3	..	..	..	..	10
——— Cont. Com.	..	..	..	..	..	1	..	..	1	1	3
Phlegmon et Abscessus	..	..	1	2	2	2	..	..	..	2	9
Cynanche Trachealis	..	..	..	..	1	..	..	..	..	..	1
Pneumonia	..	1	1	1	..	4	3	1	..	1	12
Hepatitis Acuta	..	..	1	..	..	4	..	1	..	1	7
——— Chronica	7	7	4	2	..	1	2	..	..	..	23
Nephritis	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	1	..	1
Rheumatismus Acutus	..	..	2	..	..	2	4	1	1	2	12
——— Chronicus	3	7	1	1	3	5	2	..	4	1	27
Hæmoptysis	..	1	2	..	..	..	1	..	2	..	6
Phthisis Pul. Tub.	5	4	1	1	1	2	6	6	3	3	32
Catarrhus Chronicus	1	9	19	3	1	12	4	9	8	8	74
Dysenteria Chronica	5	1	2	3	..	..	2	1	10	14	38
Paralysis	..	2	..	4	1	1	1	..	..	1	10
Dyspepsia	..	4	1	..	..	1	2	..	1	3	12
Epilepsia	..	..	2	..	..	2	..	..	..	2	6
Asthma period. Convul.	..	..	1	2	..	5	..	..	2	..	10
Dyspnœa Cont.	5	3	..	..	1	..	..	1	..	..	10
Diarrhœa	..	..	1	2	..	..	..	..	..	4	7
Amentia	..	..	..	..	..	..	1	..	..	..	1
Mania	..	..	..	..	..	1	2	1	2	..	6
Anasarca	..	..	..	..	..	..	1	..	..	..	1
Ascites	..	..	..	..	1	1	..	..	..	..	2
Physconia	..	..	..	3	..	..	..	..	..	..	3
Scrophula	..	1	2	2	..	1	1	..	1	..	8
Syphilis Consecutiva	..	..	1	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	1
Scorbutus	..	..	1	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	1
Icterus	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	1	1
Contractura	..	..	..	..	..	1	..	..	1	..	2
Encuresis	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	1	1
Hernia Humoralis	2	..	..	2	..	..	..	..	..	1	5
Strictura Urethræ	1	..	..	..	..	..	..	1	..	..	2
Sarcocele	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	1	1
Obstipatio	1	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	1
Varia	..	..	..	..	..	1	1	1	1	1	5
Hernia	2	10	2	..	3	2	..	..	..	..	19
Aneurisma	..	1	..	1	..	..	..	..	..	..	2
Fistula in Ano	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	1	..	..	1
——— in Perinæo	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	1	1
Luxatio	..	..	1	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	1
Subluxatio	..	..	1	..	..	..	1	..	..	..	2
Vulnus Sclopitarium	..	1	..	..	..	..	..	..	1	..	2
——— Incisum	2	4	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	6
Contusio	2	4	1	..	..	1	..	..	..	1	9
Ambustio	..	..	..	..	..	4	..	..	..	..	4
Ulcus	3	..	1	..	..	1	2	..	2	6	15
Fractura	..	2	..	..	..	..	3	..	1	2	8
Amputatio	..	2	..	..	..	..	1	..	..	..	3
Caries of Teeth	..	..	..	..	..	1	..	..	..	..	1
Morbi Oculorum	18	9	4	..	10	5	6	4	6	1	63
——— Cutis	..	1	..	..	..	..	..	..	2	2	5
Total	57	74	53	29	31	64	46	28	50	61	493
Worn out, &c.	3	..	1	19	..	1	..	..	..	..	24
	60	74	54	48	31	65	46	28	50	61	517
Average strength of Command	2036	2610	1776	2667	2291	2406	2094	2118	2117	2364	

Return of Deaths in the Island of Malta, from 1st January to 31st December, 1834.

Diseases.	January.	February.	March.	April.	May.	June.	July.	August.	September.	October.	November.	December.	Total.
Abortus	17	9	10	10	10	4	15	16	8	10	7	10	126
Abscessus	1		2	2				2	1		1	1	9
Anasarca	8	17	13	10	14	6	5	8	1	8	11	10	117
Angina			1						1				2
Aneurisma	1			2								2	5
Anthrax				1									1
Apoplexia	24	16	12	13	8	4	6	12	3	13	7	18	131
Ascitis		3	4	3	2		4	2	1	3	1	4	27
Asthma	4	1	8	1	5		2		3	6	3	5	38
Aphtæ								1					1
Bronchitis	4	2	2	3	1			1		2			15
Cancer				1	1	1	1	1		2		1	8
Cangrena	1	4	3	2	3	4		1	1	3	2	4	28
Cardialgia	1						1						2
Carditis	2			2									2
Catarrhus acutus	7	8	9	4	4		3	1	2	4	2	5	43
——— chronicus	2	2	3	1	2	2			1		2	4	19
Colica	2	1	1	1			4	2	3	1	6		21
Cephalgia			3										3
Convulsio	2	3		1			1	1	1		2	1	12
Colliai causa pulveris		11											11
Concussio cerebri						1		1	1				3
Croup								1					1
Combustio accidentalis											1		1
Debilitas senilis	5	11	11	8	4	4	2	8	3	4	3	3	66
——— infantilis	13	14	21	5	11	5	6	6	5	6	9	11	112
Diabetes	1	1	1									1	4
Diarrhœa	17	15	30	16	10	31	25	34	27	20	25	25	275
Dentitio	11	11	9	8	9	18	25	25	22	21	15	5	186
Dyspepsia	2												2
Dysenteria acuta	4	1	7	2			6	21	8	11	15	4	79
——— chronica	2	1	1	1	1	1	3	1	1	2	4		18
Eclampsia	27	28	25	26	17	6	12	17	11	9	8	18	204
Empyema		3		1			1		1				6
Encephalitis		1			1		2	1		4	1	1	12
Enteritis	3	6	4	6	3	3	7	2	9	11	6	6	66
Epilepsia		1			3		1				1		5
Erysipelas phlegmonosa	1					1	1						3
Febris intermittens		1			1								2
——— remittens			5	7	1	2		5	1	2	2	4	29
——— putrida		1	1				1					1	4
——— nervosa	4	4	5	6	1	3	4	3	7	1	7	7	52
——— typhoida	8	6	18	7	14	5	5	10	5	5	4	3	80
——— lenta	6	13	9	6	4	3	9	6	5	3	6	5	80
——— communis synocha	8	9											17
——— vel sinocus			2	13	12	7	2	3	6	3	3	2	53
Flegmon	1		1										2
Fractura		1	1	1	1								4
Fungus hæmatodes					1								1
Gastritis	1		2	2	1		2			1	2	1	12
Hematuria												1	1
Hæmoptisis		2	2	3		1			1	2	2		13
Hepatitis	2		1	1	2		1	3		1	2	1	14
Homicidium								1					1
Hernia	1	1						1				1	4
Hydrocephalus		2							2				4
Hydrothorax		6	10	1	3	5	2	1	4	3	8	7	50
Icterus		1						1		1			3
Ischuria					1	1			1				3
Marasmus senilis	4	1	1		1	2	1		4	7	2	7	30
——— infantilis	24	13	16	9	10	30	22	29	15	14	15	9	207
Metritis		2	1		1		1	1				1	7
Morbili	3												3
Mortui in partu		1			1						1	1	4
Mortui in utero matris	3	8	6	3	5	2	4	1	3	4	5	4	45
Nephritis					1					1			2
Necrosdis						2							2
Palpitatio					1								1
Peritonitus puerperalis					1								1
Pertussis	1	1	1	3				1			1		8
Phthisis pulmonalis	14	12	12	10	13	8	14	19				1	150
Phrenitis								1					1
Pleuritis	3		2	3	2				1			1	12
Podagra retropulsa		1											1
Pneumonitis	6	2	8	10	4	1	1	2	2	3	4	6	49
Pneumonia notha	1	1	1	2		1		1					7
Rheumatismus chronicus		1										1	2
Scirrus					1		1					1	3
Scorbutus				2									2
Scrophula	3	1	2	4	4	2	1	2	1	1	2	1	24
Sphacelus			1	1			1	1	3	1	1		9
Suffocatio										1			1
——— in aqua	2					2	2	2	1		1	1	11
Syphilis	1		2										3
Splenitis								1					1
Tetanus				2	2		1			1	1	2	9
Trachitis		1											1
Tussis infantilis	1												1
Ulcus	1			1	1			1					4
Vomitus				1									1
Volvolus	1									1	1	1	4
Uttio	1			1									2
Total	262	262	291	230	195	176	218	252	204	208	211	223	2,732

The endemic diseases are few; small pox has been unknown for some years; varicella and scarlatina, occasionally appear, and measles are not unusual. The most important endemic is the plague, which was first noticed in the Maltese annals in 1549, A.D.; in 1593 it again appeared:—in 1623 40 persons died of it, and in 1663 it reappeared, when only 20 persons fell victims to it: but its advent in 1675 was dreadful, for 11,300 persons died of this terrible malady. For 130 years Malta was free from plague when it broke out with fearful violence in 1813; for, from its commencement in April, 1813, to its termination in September the same year, 4,486 deaths took place in the island, of which 1,223 occurred in Valetta, the mortality being about 80 in the 100 attacked: the monthly progress is shewn by the deaths from April to November, viz.: April, 3 cases; May, 110; June, 800; July, 1,595; August, 1,042; September, 674; October, 211; November, 53; *maximum* of the thermometer during those months was, 71° 82° 84° 88° 86° 88° 83° 72° F. strong winds blew during part of the period, particularly in July. How the plague originated was never clearly ascertained; it was generally attributed to three vessels which arrived in Malta, 29th March, 1813, from Alexandria, where the plague was then raging; some of the crews of these vessels died on the passage from pestilential diseases.

I will not here enter on the question of contagion or non-contagion, but it is a remarkable fact, that some of the populous villages or casals in Malta totally escaped the disorder, and cases are on record where a women held her dying husband in her arms, or the husband nursed his dying wife and children with perfect impunity; nay even children sucked their dying mothers, and lay infolded in their arms without contracting the disease. In truth, the question of contagion (or diseases caught by *contact* only) and infection (diseases communicated by the atmosphere,) is not yet sufficiently understood.

There can be no doubt that the exertions of the late Sir Thomas Maitland to wall up the disease wherever it appeared,

and cut off all unnecessary communication with the disease, was productive of benefit, but still we have information of too many exceptions to the generally laid down rules of contagion, to contend for the infallibility of segregating the sick in any manner that would cause the '*living to fly from the sick they should cherish.*'

The Lazaretto.—This very important establishment occupies a peninsula which juts out into the lesser harbour on the western side of the city of Valetta, and which has been completely insulated by an artificial cut. On the highest ground in the islet is Fort Manoel, and on the shore beneath is the lazaretto, consisting of a number of buildings, erected at different times, which present an extensive front to the water, surrounded by a triple line of high stone walls towards the land. Besides these buildings a very extensive area is also enclosed by solid stone walls, within which, in cases of necessity, many hundred persons could be encamped, duly classed according to the different stages of their disorder, should plague again make its appearance among the inhabitants. There is abundant accommodation for persons performing quarantine, for cattle and for goods. On the main land, nearly opposite, is the Health office, where the various officers of the establishment conduct their business, and beneath is the 'parlatorio,' where, under proper restrictions, conversation is permitted with individuals who perform their quarantine on board the shipping.

The whole of the establishment is under the care of the superintendent of quarantine, and embraces an extensive range of peculiar duties, which, are conducted in such a manner as to render the quarantine department of Malta one of the most effective in Europe.

The captain of the port and the physician of the health office examine all shipping approaching the harbour, to ascertain the state of health of the crew, the nature of the cargo, and the port from which the vessel sailed, &c. &c. The questions necessary to be asked for the elucidation of these points are not left to the discretion of the examining officers,

but are contained in printed papers, on which the answers are inserted.

The process of expurgation at Malta during the plague or other pestilential diseases, consisted of the free and continual admission of air to all parts of the house and furniture; the removal of filth of every species; ablution of all wood-work by a strong lye of soap-water and the application of hot lime-wash to all the walls, from the cellar to the garret; taking care to remove and repair all loose or decayed pieces of plastering. All the drains, &c. completely emptied of their contents, and thoroughly cleansed. The clothing and furniture most minutely cleansed, and such parts as are not susceptible of damage from water submitted to copious effusions and even boiled in a strong lye when practicable. Books, and all other similar articles, placed in the open air, on the terraces, &c., and every decayed, superfluous, or useless article, particularly in the form of rags, cordage, paper, clothes, hangings, &c. &c. destroyed. During the plague in this island, a very large sum of money was expended, and most laudably expended, in the work of expurgation, by the government. Immense quantities of susceptible or infected articles, of little intrinsic value, were hoarded up by the inhabitants, and these were either burnt or properly purified, the government paying one-third of the expense; the cost of transport often exceeded the value of the articles, as the expurgating carts to and from the lazaretto were maintained at an expense of nearly five pounds currency per day each.*

To these precautions were added fumigations of various kinds, mineral and vegetable; those from the mineral acids were very generally used in the public hospitals. The smoke of straw, damped with water, and the fumes of vinegar, were also a very frequent means of fumigation; but the great officinal formula of the Levantine lazarettos is as follows: it, however, was principally applied to goods, letters, &c.

* The information which the late Dr. Hennen collected on this, and on all other points of medical topography in our Mediterranean possessions, is extremely valuable.

Sulphur, six pounds; orpiment, crude antimony, litharge, cumin seed, euphorbium, black pepper, ginger, of each four pounds; assafœtida, cinnabar, sal armoniac, of each three pounds; arsenic, one pound. All reduced to a fine powder, to which is added raspings or saw-dust of pine wood, six pounds; bran, fifty pounds.

This most offensive and penetrating composition appears to have been long in use, for it is noticed by Dr. Russel in his History of Aleppo. The exposure of clothing to the night air was supposed by many to be the most effectual of all means of purification, and the Turks and other inhabitants of the Levant place the most implicit confidence in its efficacy, which they attribute principally to the operation of the dew.

A regular body of expurgators was organized at Valetta, who marched through the city by beat of drum and sound of bugle, so as to warn all parties of their approach; but one of the most important establishments was a corps of volunteer guards, called the 'Guardia Volontaria Urbana,' organized by the Inspector-General of Police. They were composed of inhabitants who never moved out of their own streets, and did duty at the doors and windows of their own houses. Their business was to prevent all improper communication; to see that all susceptible articles of food were immersed in water for, at least, half an hour; that pigeons, fowls, rabbits, &c., were stripped of their feathers and skins; that wine, &c. was received in clean uncorked bottles; that all non-susceptible articles were cautiously examined, and all filaments of thread, wool, feathers, &c. were removed by pincers and burned; that all coins received were passed through vinegar; that all contact with the porters of provisions, water carriers, &c. &c. was cautiously avoided; and finally, that individuals of the family anointed themselves well with oil, as the surest preventive. It is remarkable that the dealers in oil, and those who were anointed with oleaginous materials, escaped the plague; I observed when in India that the oil, ghee, and butter venders were most generally free from cholera.

The quarantine regulations of the island will be found in the Appendix; and for the following remarks on the subject

I am indebted to Dr. Davy (the Deputy Inspector of Hospitals at Malta), from whom I recently received them.

Hints and Queries relative to Quarantine.—It may be laid down as a preliminary rule that the precautions which may be efficacious against a contagious disease, or a disease capable of being propagated only by contact, will not be of avail against another disease which is capable of spreading by infection or without contact, by exhalations transmissible through the atmosphere.

1st. The first thing to be considered is, are the diseases to be guarded against solely contagious?—Is the system of quarantine regulations to be framed solely against them?

The present system is only directed against contagion in the strictest sense of the term, and only regularly against plague.

The majority of facts are in favour of the commonly received opinion, that plague is strictly contagious. Yet it is worthy of a special enquiry whether occasionally it may not arise de novo from causes independent of contagion, and spread epidemically owing to the wide operation of the causes which may have produced it.

2nd. Supposing that the diseases to be guarded against are solely contagious, not capable *now* of arising de novo, or of spreading through the atmosphere, the following points require investigation in relation to quarantine,—and to be finally established for the efficacy of quarantine.

1. How long may the disease remain latent in man?

2. Can animals take, and communicate it?

3. Is it capable of being communicated through the medium of inanimate or unorganized matter?

4. If capable, the length of time it may be retained or propagated by inanimate substances?

5. Is there any difference in the power of substances to retain and convey it—are some substances susceptible, and others unsusceptible of receiving and communicating it?

In the present system it is taken for granted that certain substances are susceptible, and certain others unsusceptible. All fleecy and soft porous substances appear to be placed in the former list; all hard and compact substances in the latter.

But *why* it is difficult to say; the distinctions are unscientific and incorrect; the system founded on them perfectly insecure, and consequently mischievous in the highest degree, as entailing expense and annoyance without security, in brief, the foundation of a false system.

Hard compact substances, as the metals and glass, have no power of destroying any kind of contagious matter; nor have flocculent and spongy substances any power of preserving such matter. On the contrary, they are not, from their abounding in air, so well fitted as the former. Chemically considered, cotton and wool are the same in nature, yet one is pronounced at present susceptible, and the other non-susceptible.

3rd. *Supposing* that all common substances (as there is good reason to believe) exercise no destructive power on the matter of contagion, considering it an animal matter, somewhat analogous to vaccine lymph or small-pox matter,—that it may adhere to any kind of substance, as glass or metal, wood, cotton, or wool, and in a dry state be preserved for an indefinite time, which are the most likely means for destroying it, or for rendering it as contagious matter inert, with a view to the efficacy of quarantine in regard to merchandise, &c.

On this point, wanting positive evidence derived from experiments on the matter of the plague, the reasoning must be analogical, founded on our experience of the properties of other kinds of matter, as that of cow-pox and small-pox.

There can be little doubt that certain chemical agents are capable of destroying the matter of plague, as chlorine and nitrous acid, by their decomposing powers. The objection against their use is that they injure the quality of the merchandise. I have no doubt that sulphurous acid gas (which is the active substance in the present fumigating process) has the power of destroying, or rendering inert the matter of contagion; and there are various articles of merchandise to which it might be applied economically and safely. As however it injures colours it is applicable only to white articles.

Another agent, *heat*, which has lately been suggested by Dr. Henry, of Manchester, on very strong grounds in favour

of its efficacy, admits of more general application, there being very few articles of trade liable to be injured by the temperature of about 160° Fahr., which, according to his experiments, is sufficient to destroy or render inert the matters of contagion subjected by him to trial.

Very great advantages attend the employing of heat in preference to any other agent. Besides, not being injurious to the quality of the majority of articles, it can be efficiently applied in the shortest possible time, and to the largest masses; —penetrating every thing, no unpacking is required. It will act as efficiently in the centre of a compressed bale of cotton or of wool as on a single thread or fleece of either; a certain elevation of temperature only being necessary of the substance to be depurated.

The present system in relation to depuration, like the system of quarantine generally, appears to be without sound principle, and not secure.

According to what I have heard, the means employed for the purpose of depuration are of two kinds, fumigation with sulphur, &c. (of which, as already mentioned, a favourable opinion is entertained), applicable to letters; and ventilation, or the spreading abroad of the articles in the open air, so as to expose them completely to its influence; the method employed towards the majority of articles of merchandise.

In this method it is impossible to place any confidence. There is no proof that simple exposure to the air is capable of destroying contagious matter; on the contrary, in a dry atmosphere it is an excellent means of preserving delicate animal and vegetable substances; we know by experience that vaccine lymph, in its dry state, adhering to wood, may be preserved without losing its efficiency for many weeks, or even months.

The method is then unworthy of confidence, analogically considered, and very expensive and troublesome.

4th. It is highly desirable that very patient and minute enquiry be instituted preparatory to the establishing of a new system of quarantine; which to be as efficient as possible, and as little as possible injurious to the interests of commerce,

should be founded on well established facts, entirely independent both of loose experience and of vague speculation.

The probability is that a very mitigated system might answer all useful purposes,—infinitely less vexatious than the present, and much more efficacious.

The following points may be deserving of consideration with a view to such a mitigated system, and to give an idea of it.

It is said (and I have never heard it contradicted), that the plague has never appeared in any British ships of war in the Mediterranean, or in any vessel belonging to the old Levant Company; some precautions against contagion being always taken, both in our navy, and in the shipping of the old Levant Company when at a port where plague has prevailed. If this is a fact, might not our navy be exempted from quarantine, the officer commanding, in every instance, being made responsible for reporting correctly on the health of his crew?

It is said (and I have never heard it contradicted), that there is no instance on record of the men employed in the Lazaretto of Malta in depurating cotton and other goods from the Levant contracting plague, though they came in contact with them. If true, how little ground for fear is there of plague being introduced by cotton, &c. Might not the quarantine be removed if the importing ship brings clean bills of health?

It is said (and I have never heard it contradicted), that in the island of Tyra, a place of great commerce with the Levant, and where pratique is given to all vessels from the Levant arriving with clean bills of health, that plague has never appeared in the memory of the oldest inhabitants. If true, is it not a proof that quarantine on ships with foul bills of health (the plan followed there) is sufficient to exclude plague; and if so in a little island of the Archipelago, might not the plan be deserving of greater confidence in our own instance, having in all the ports of the Levant responsible consuls to certify as to the state of health of the inhabitants.*

Mediciners and Medicines.—The University of Malta

* Malta, June 14th, 1833.

grants degrees in medicine and chirurgery; and the Maltese physicians and surgeons are now principally educated in the island, many of them being possessed of considerable professional talents, to dispense which they are required to produce certificates to the Government; their fees, however, are exceedingly small as shewn by the following schedule of doctor's fees, sanctioned by Government in March 1821.

	Scudi. *	Taris. †
For a visit by day in Valetta, or in the professor's place of residence	0	6
For a visit when accompanied with another professor	1	6
Ditto, between ten at night and four in the morning	2	6
A consultation by night, 5 scudi; ditto by day	2	6
For applying a blister, and dressing the same	1	3
Bleeding, cupping, or applying leeches	0	6
A visit from Valetta to Floriana, or to the Marina	1	3
Ditto ditto, by night	3	0
A visit when accompanied by another professor	2	0
A consultation in the above places	3	0
A visit from Valetta to Cospicua, Vittoriosa, or Senglea	2	6
Meeting a professor in those places	3	0
A consultation in those places	3	9
A visit from Valetta to Zabar, Luca, Tarxien, Curmi, Birchircara, or Missida	3	0
Meeting a professor in the above places	3	4
A consultation in the above-named casals	4	0
A visit to the more interior casals	3	6
Meeting a professor in the said casals	4	0
A consultation in the said casals	5	0
The introduction of the catheter	2	6
The reduction of hernia	3	0
The operation for dropsy	2	6
Other operations, such as amputation, &c., shall be submitted for the consideration of the Medical Committee.		
For a medical or surgical certificate	1	3
For a consultation in writing	2	6
The cure of a simple syphilitic complaint, if the patient goes to the professor's house	5	0

A complete mercurial course to be charged according to circumstances. Dressing wounds, bandaging and unbandaging fractures, shall be submitted for the consideration of the Medical Committee, to be decided upon according to the circumstances and time employed.

There are several domestic medicines in Malta deserving notice: the leading popular remedy is the oil of sweet almonds; this is quite a panacea, and had recourse to on all occasions; it is a good laxative.

Lemon juice is also a frequent application in domestic practice, especially in disorders of the eyes; and it appears

* The scudi is equal to 1*s.* 8*d.* sterling.

† The taris is equal to 1⅔*d.* sterling, fixed by Government.

to be a tolerably active stimulant, and useful in certain stages of disease. But very extraordinary is the 'Aqua distillata catellorum,' or puppy water; it is not prepared like Ambrose Paré's celebrated emollient ointment, by stewing down the whelp with oil, but is effected simply by distillation; of course this is no more than distilled water, with a very minute admixture of the animal matter, capable of rising in the heat of 212. It is held to be sovereign in frights and the nervous affections of women, or 'scanto,' as they are called; and though an empirical trick, its employment is defended on a medical principle, viz. the violent reaction it produces when the patient is told of the remedy she has swallowed.

An absorbent earth found in some caves is used in all cases attended with acrimonious humours, and as a specific in fevers. It is said to be constantly regenerating from the exposure of the cave to the action of the atmosphere; the absorbent earth swells by the moisture it imbibes, and when one layer of the surface is removed, another comes in contact with the atmosphere, and its texture loosens and swells out as the preceding layer did, after the manner of slaked lime.

Another popular remedy is the sand-bath, and which is chiefly used for rachitis and pertussis. The patient is kept in the pit close covered up with sand for different periods from ten minutes to half an hour, a copious perspiration is produced, and is kept up by the use of diluents and artificial warmth, after which a cordial is administered. It is said to be occasionally effectual.

Hospitals and Charitable Institutions.—There are two fine hospitals at Valetta, and one at Gozo, supported entirely by Government; all persons are received therein who require medical aid; and there is also a public dispensary, where medicines are furnished gratis to those who require not in-door treatment. At Floriana, the suburbs of Valetta, there are two charitable institutions, one called *Ospizio*, the other the *House of Industry*: the first is for the reception of old men and women, and a part of the building is appropriated for the reception of the insane:—about 700 persons are maintained in this establishment.

The whole of the charitable institutions are under the management of a committee, chiefly composed of persons holding offices under Government. The prisons, which are admirably managed as regards classification, cleanliness, and reformation, are under the same committee.

The following details while they demonstrate the attention of the Maltese Government to these useful charities, will prove interesting to benevolent individuals in our other colonies.

The *House of Industry* (founded by the Marquis of Hastings), is for the instruction and rearing up of poor female children and orphans, who when of a proper age are obliged to find work for themselves.

The number of inmates in the establishment is 250, besides 60 more girls of poor families, who come twice a day from their homes to attend a day school within the premises of the institution.

The expense of each of the inmates for food, clothing, bedding, washing, and light, amounts, on an average, to about three-pence per day, or £4. 11*s.* 3*d.* a year. Shoes, stockings, or *faldetta*, are not furnished as part of the clothing; but the girls generally procure these articles from the institution, paying for the same out of their earnings or premiums.

In the number of inmates are included about fifteen girls, whose relatives and friends pay to the institution for their maintenance, &c. at the rate of 8*s.* 4*d.* per month, or £5. a year each.

Daily Diet Table for the Girls at the House of Industry.—For Meat Days.—One lb. and a half of bread; ¼ lb. of beef; 2 oz. of vermicelli; 2 oz. of fruit.

For Fast Days.—One pound and a half of bread; 3 oz. of vermicelli; 2 oz. of fruit; 2 eggs, or a proportion of salt fish, with oil, olives, or cheese, and a portion of suet for soup.

Proportions.—Cheese, 2 oz. each person; olives, 1 mondello for every 20 persons; salt fish, 1 rotolo for every 8 persons; oil for ditto, 1 pint for every 30 persons; suet for soup, 1 ounce for every 5 persons.

Articles of Clothing supplied to each of the Girls in the Institution.—Three shifts; 3 jackets; 3 petticoats; 3 aprons; 1 pouch; 2 combs.

Bedding supplied to each of the Inmates.—Two blankets; 1 coverlet; 2 sheets; 3 bolster cases; 1 bed, consisting of 2 iron trestles and wooden bed boards, and 1 palliasse filled with straw.

Return of the actual Number of Patients treated in the Civil Hospitals, and the Number of Inmates in the Ospizio and Lunatic Asylum, on the 2nd March, 1835, shewing the Diet and Expence of each Person.

CIVIL HOSPITALS.

Number of Patients.		Daily Diet.	Full.	Half.	Average Expenses.
Medical cases	Men .. 47	Bread . . .	17½ oz.	10 oz.	For victualling each person, with the Expense of Washing, Funerals, and Oil for light, 3 8-100 of a Penny per diem.
	Women 83	Paste	2 ..	2 ..	
Surgical cases	Men .. 96	Rice	2 ..	2 ..	For medicines and medical comforts, about 6-12ths of a Penny each person per diem.
	Women 89	Meat	7½ ..	3¾ ..	
		Broth	2 pints	2 pints	
	Total..315	Coffee, or Tea and Milk	½ pint	½ pint	For Wear and Tear of Bedding, Clothing, and utensils, calculated at 10*s.* each person per annum.
		N. B. Fowls, Broth, Fish, Eggs, Wine, and other Extra Articles, allowed when prescribed by the Medical Officers.			

OSPIZIO AND LUNATIC ASYLUM.

Number of Inmates.		Daily Diet.	Average Expenses.
Poor . .	Men . . 280	Bread . . . 20 oz.	For Victualling each Inmate, with the Expense of Washing, Funerals, and Oil for light, 2 8-100 of a Penny per diem.
	Women 330	Paste for Soup . 4 ..	
Maniacs	Men . . 45	Meat, or Salt Fish 3¾ ..	For Medicine allowed to each Sick Inmate, about 6-12ths of a Penny per diem.
	Women 57	Cheese . . . 2	
Female Prisoners . .	20	Eggs, 2 in number.	For Wear and Tear of Cloth-ing, Bedding, Furniture, and Utensils, calculated at 10*s.* each Inmate, per annum.
	Total 732	Olives, 1-20th of a measure called mondello.	
		Fruit, 2 oz.	
		Wine, ½ a pint for Men.	
		.. ¼ do. for Women.	
		Vegetables, a sufficient quantity for Soup.	
		Fowls, Broth, and other extra articles allowed to Sick Inmates.	
		No Wine allowed to Maniacs or Convicts, except when prescribed by the Surgeon.	

Public Dispensary.—The actual number of out-door patients furnished with medical and surgical aid and medicines during the year 1834, and the total yearly expense, is as follows, viz.—

Number of Persons.	Medical cases	4,466
	Surgical cases	13,176
		17,642

		£.	s.	d.
Total Yearly Expence.	Cost of medicines, instruments, and surgical materials	146	10	9
	Pay to the apothecary and porter	50	0	0
	Gratuity to five medical officers for two years' service	44	0	0
		240	10	9

Detail of the articles of bedding and clothing, &c. allowed in each institution:—

To every Patient in the Civil Hospital.—One wool mattress; 1 palliasse; 1 bolster; 1 pillow and case; 2 sheets, or more when required; 1 blanket; 1 coverlet; 1 set of boards and trestles; 1 bedside table and all the necessary utensils; 1 shirt; 1 cap; 1 long jacket; 1 pair of trowsers. The last two articles only allowed to convalescents.

To every Inmate of the Ospizio.—One palliasse; 1 bolster; 1 blanket; 1 coverlet; 1 set of boards and trestles; 2 sheets and pillow cases allowed to bedridden and infirm; 1 locker or bedside table, and all other necessary utensils. For Men—3 shirts; 3 jackets; 3 pair of trowsers; 2 caps; 1 straw hat. For Women—3 shifts, 3 jackets; 3 petticoats; 2 kerchiefs.

The Ospizio is a very noble charity, and its regularity and good order reflect credit on all concerned; it is open on all occasions to public inspection, and little other recommendation is required to become an inmate than the claims of poverty and distress.

The poor and the deranged occupy distinct parts of the building, and the sexes of each class are separated. The paupers occupy numerous halls and rooms, well ventilated and clean; each has a separate bed, raised from the floor on boards and trestles, and furnished with a sufficient supply of bedding. There are separate apartments where they take their meals, all the appointments connected with which are equally neat with those of the sleeping rooms.

The lunatics and idiots have each separate cells, with boards and trestles and sufficient bedding, and a general airing ground and corridor. Coercive measures are rarely resorted to; nor even solitary confinement, except to their own cells, when it is absolutely required.

The foundling division is conducted with equal care and

attention to the comforts of its helpless tenants, as the other parts of the establishment. The infants are received from all parts of the island, and are sent out to nurse in the country as fast as nurses can be provided for them. Those who are not thus provided for, are reared by hand in the house—some are very pitiable objects; their congenite diseases rendering it impossible to procure wet nurses for them; great attention, however, is paid to them, and some are reared by means of goats' milk, which they suck from the animal, but the mortality is very high; whenever any of them survive and arrive at an age capable of undertaking employment whereby they can be useful in the establishment, or can provide for themselves, they are either employed within the walls, or discharged to work on their own account; until then, they are kept at the public expense.

Many of the orphans are able to make some return to the charity by working at a cotton manufactory which is established within its walls. The cotton is purchased in the raw state, and is spun, twisted, and wove into every sort of garment, and bed and table linen, used either in the Ospizio itself or the Civil Hospital. Lint for the use of the latter is also prepared; and such species of industry are promoted as suit the age, infirmities, and constitutions of the inhabitants; nor is the stimulus of pecuniary reward wanting, for about a fourth of the produce of their industry is granted to the work-people; and such as are able and of good character are indulged by permission to go out into the city and acquire any little remuneration for their labours they can procure.

The diet is of excellent quality, and cooked in the most careful manner; the whole culinary establishment being remarkable for cleanliness and regularity.

A sum little short of £20,000 currency is annually distributed in Malta to the poor, (including the expenses of the civil hospital,) and of this, a sum of about £100 currency, per week, is distributed in alms; all these expenses are defrayed from the rent of various lands and houses bequeathed for the purpose, by pious individuals at different times. At

present paupers of both sexes abound throughout the island. The principal employment of the lower class of women and children is cotton spinning, and at this an adult female cannot at present earn more than two-pence per day, which is barely sufficient to supply her with bread. Labourers among the males are in as full employment as ever, where agricultural objects are pursued; but porters, boatmen, and all the other classes which depend upon commerce for their daily subsistence, are severe sufferers; and even among superior ranks the effects of poverty are felt with considerable severity.*

A charity of perhaps the most efficient character that has hitherto been open to the wants of the poor and distressed, is one recently instituted on a very small scale, by a few pious Englishwomen, for supplying poor room-keepers with clothing, and an occasional pecuniary stipend. Among the multiplicity of buildings in Valetta, there is no want of cellars and apartments of small size and low rent in all parts of the city for the accommodation of the poor; but there are certain neighbourhoods along the line walls, especially at one point called "Mandraggio," where they are congregated in dense masses, and lodged in abodes, which, it is true, afford them shelter, but it is that shelter which excludes a sufficiency of light and air for the purposes of ordinary ventilation and cleanliness. This particular district has, according to tradition (confirmed by old plans and maps), been recovered from the sea in former ages, and is at present below its level; it is damp, filthy, and comfortless—the houses are crowded together, badly constructed, and inconveniently planned, and the streets are narrow, irregular, and unpaved. At all times the poor inhabitants are characterized by a peculiarly sallow, unhealthy aspect; but during the period that the city suffered from the plague, the disease raged with the most fatal violence among them, and scarce an individual escaped the contagion.†

* This was the testimony of Dr. Hennen, in 1830; and, unfortunately, pauperism is still on the increase.

† The term 'Mandraggio' is expressive of the nature of this district.

The civil hospital of Valetta, elsewhere noticed, consists of two separate branches, one for males, the other for females.

The male capable of accomodating 200 sick; the female 150. The wards are kept clean and well ventilated, and with a sufficient supply of bedding.

The dieting is conducted on a plan nearly similar to that of the British military hospitals, modified by the peculiar habits of the natives.

The medical attendants are natives, and consist of one physician and two surgeons, with two assistants each. The salary of these officers is about £12 sterling per month. One surgeon has charge of the men, and another of the women. The physician is professor of physic in the college, and delivers clinical lectures on the practice of physic in the hospital. Mr. Portelli, the surgeon of the male hospital, delivers lectures on anatomy and surgery, in a theatre recently erected within the walls of the hospital.

At Citta Vecchia, an hospital has existed from a remote period. Abela informs us, that of the history of its foundation he possesses no documents; but, so far back as the year 1370, it is mentioned in the records of the Royal Chancery of Palermo. It was then known under the name of the hospital of St. Francesco, and appears to have been well endowed. Its affairs were administered by the Jurats or local magistrates of the city. At present, it forms a branch of the civil hospital of Valetta, and it is now called the Hospital of Spirito Santo.

In 1654, Nicholas Saura, a native physician, endowed an hospital in Citta Vecchia for the reception of chronic cases and incurables; it is now a sort of poor-house, and its funds, which have been considerably increased by the bequests of benevolent natives, are entirely under the management of

'Mandra,' in Italian, signifies a 'herd of cattle;' and 'Mandraggio,' though not to be found in dictionaries or vocabularies, designates in the vulgar tongue, 'a pen for a herd of cattle.' In a plan of the city to be found in 'Statuta Hospitalis Hierusalem,' 4to., printed at Rome in 1568, the Mandraggio is represented as an oblong basin or ditch, on the outside of the line wall.

the bishop. There exists also a charitable fund for the portioning of poor girls at Citta Vecchia; and both in that ancient capital and the principal towns throughout the island, frequent and liberal distributions of food and money are made to the poor at the gates of the various convents.

POPULATION.—When or by whom Malta was first peopled is unknown; according to fabular tradition, the island was primarily tenanted by a race of giants. When in possession of the Phœnicians and Carthaginians it was probably thickly inhabited, owing to the extensive commerce carried on; but the earliest data I can obtain are those given by Boisgelin, who says, that in 1559, after the raising of the famous siege of Malta by the Turks, the island contained only 10,000 inhabitants: in 1632, without reckoning the Knights, &c. of the Order, and Ecclesiastics and Officers of the Holy Brotherhood, the number of the inhabitants amounted to 51,750 men, women, and children.

According to the records the population of the two islands of Malta and Gozo was in 1590, mouths, 28,864; in 1617, 43,798; in 1670, 60,000; in 1780, 100,000. In 1775 there were computed to be in Malta and Gozo, native Catholic inhabitants, 121,507; the regular militia, 16,000 (effective men). The loss during the siege of the French, in Valetta, from 1798 to 1800, amounted to 20,000, including women and children; independent of the troops Buonaparte forcibly took with him to Egypt.

The next document I can find gives the population of Malta and Gozo, as extracted from *L'Almanacco delle Isole di Malta e Gozo* for the year 1807:—

Catholic Natives of Malta.—The Capital Notabile (Citta Vecchia, or Medina), and its suburbs, 3,731; Valetta, and its suburb Floriana (city) 24,546; Cospicua (city), 6,224; Vittoriosa (city), 3,300; Senglea, (city), 4,152; Birchircara (1st casal, or Burgh), 3,810; Naxaro (2nd do.) 3,020; Curmi (3rd do.) 3,186; Zurrico (4th do.) 3,016; Zeitun, (5th do.) 4,024; Gudia (6th do.) 890; Siggeri (7th do.) 2,715; Zebug (8th do.) 4,026; Attard (9th do.) 731; Musta, (10th do.)

3,003; Micabiba (11th do.) 703; Crendi (12th do.) 924; Hasciack (13th do,) 1,003; Zabbar (14th do.) 2,542; Dingli (15th do.) 180; Tarxien (16th do.) 910; Gargur (17th do.) 949; Safi (18th do.) 178; Chercop (19th do.) 300; Luca (20th do.) 836; Balzan (21st do.) 444; Lia (22d do.) 882; total in Malta, 80,225.

From the Registers of the Parochial Priests:—

Catholic Natives of Gozo.—Castello e Rabato, 5,100; Caccia (casal) 1,469; Garba (ditto) 1,459; Nadur (ditto) 1,800; Zeudia (ditto) 1,364; Saimat (ditto) 869; Zebbug (ditto) 768; total in Gozo, 12,829.

From the Registers of the Parochial Priests:—

In Malta, 80,225; in Gozo, 12,829; total native Catholics, 93,054. Other inhabitants, and domesticated strangers, estimated, 22,100; absent, estimated by register, 7,650.—Grand total, 122,804.

The number of foreigners residing in Malta during the six or seven years preceding the plague of 1813, was estimated at from 30,000 to 40,000. Many houses were fitted up like ships, with tiers of berths, and several large vessels were converted into floating hotels.

In 1824 the population of Malta alone was *estimated* by the Deputy Inspector of Police as follows:—

Population of Malta, March, 1824.—La Valetta and Floriana, 25,546; the three cities on the other side of the harbour, 18,649; Notabile and Dingli, 5,166; Zebug, 4,776; Siggieni, 3,373; Crendi, 1,052; Micabiba, 814; Zurrico, 3,618; Safi, 227; Chircop, 315; Asciach, 1,136; Gudia, 1,040; Zeitun, 5,440; Zabbar, 3,537; Tarxien, 1,011; Luca, 1,268; Curmi, 4,130; Birchircara, 5,253; Balzan, 633; Lia, 1,039; Attard, 907; Musta, 3,369; Nasciaro, 2,965; Gargur, 1,139; total 96,404.

The estimate of the population of Valetta, Floriana, and the three cities on the other side of the harbour, is only to the end of the year 1823. The villages are to the month of March, 1824.

The following return of Malta alone, from 1824 to 1828, has been furnished me by Sir Frederick Ponsonby, together with the Census of 1834:—

Return of the Population of Malta, during the following years.

Years.	Number of the Population.	Number of Deaths.	Under what Age died.						Remarks.
			Infants under 8 years.	Children from 8 to 14.	Youths from 15 to 28.	Men from 29 to 50.	Old from 51 to 70.	Decrepit from 71 upwards.	
1824	96404	2345	1125	80	158	231	372	379	During this period of five years, there died each year of apoplexy, about 120; of dropsy, 200; of marasmus, 200; of dentition, 550; of dysentery, 130; of diarrhœa, 280; of miscarriage, 120; still born, 30; of debility (infants who died soon after birth) 150; of phthisis pulmonalis, 100; of nervous and bilious fevers, 170. During this period, of those who died, no one had reached the age of 100; the oldest did not exceed 98 years: of this age about four or five in each year; about 30 individuals died annually of 90 and upwards.
1825	97627	2612	1276	82	179	293	398	384	
1826	98739	2277	1090	62	152	330	370	373	
1827	99549	2434	1180	60	160	260	385	389	
1828	100949	2592	1260	79	178	291	390	394	

The returns to the Colonial Office gives the following as the Number of Inhabitants in both Malta and Gozo:—

Population of Malta and Gozo.

Years.	White and Free Coloured People.		Births.	Marriages.	Deaths.
	Males.	Females.			
1823	112,204		..	..	..
1824	114,106		2,204	857	2,631
1825	115,155		4,075	736	3,026
1826	116,505		3,973	706	2,622
1827	116,490		3,760	633	2,738
1828	59,354	59,296	3,760	684	2,964
1829	59,239	60,537	3,722	720	2,592
1830	59,482	60,480	4,027	760	4,133
1831	59,762	61,077	4,115	775	2,938
1832	60,594	61,669	3,739	700	2,753
1833	60,493	61,563	3,824	830	3,604
1834	60,252	61,674	3,833	862	3,090
1835					

The annexed shews the Population of Malta and Gozo in 1834:—*

* The number of prisoners in 1834 was—males 331, females 24; of debtors, males 15; for misdemeanors, males 170, females 11; of felons, males 145, females 12; of prisoners tried, males 316; females, 24; ditto untried, males 15; employed at hard labour, 225; ditto, but not hard labour, 101; not employed, 29; punished for offences within the prison, 47; cases of sickness within the year, 462; of death, 2.

	Males.	Females.	Totals. Males.	Totals. Females.	Population to the Square Mile.
MALTA:					
Natives	47,321	51,606			
British Residents	553	480			
Foreigners	1,899	491			
King's Troops*	2,323	..			
Wives of Do.	..	262	52,407	53,152	$1,111\frac{14}{95}$
Children of Do.	245	258			
Persons connected with the Troops, not Soldiers	37	32			
Children of Do.	29	23			
GOZO:					
Natives	7,837	8,515	7,845	8,522	$606\frac{5}{27}$
British Residents	8	7			
			60,252	61,674	
			121,926		

The Population of Valetta and Floriana, up to the 31st December, 1826 . . . . . was 26,100

Ditto	Ditto	at Vittoriosa	4,482	
Ditto	Ditto	at Senglea	5,250	. 19,706
Ditto	Ditto	at Cospicua	9,974	
			Total	45,806

It is difficult to form any estimate of the number of Maltese who are residing in the Turkish Dominions, or in other countries bordering the Mediterranean. For the last five years an account has been kept of the departures and arrivals, by which it appears that about 10,000 have departed in each of those years, and about 9,000 have returned.

It is asserted that the natives of Malta are long lived, but it is to be regretted that we have not in the list of deaths the ages of the deceased. Abela states instances of persons living to 80, 90, 100, 105, 107, and 110 years. He notices one man, a native of Zabbar, who lived to near 120 years of age, and preserved his strength, his teeth, and in part the colour of his hair; and another, a resident in the civil hospital at Citta Vecchia, completed 120 years, retaining his memory and judgment. It is asserted by the same authority, that some

* Exclusive of the Malta Fencible Regiment, the men of which are returned with the native population.

of the ancient inhabitants lived to 130 years of age, owing to the purity of the air, and their temperate mode of living.

Dr. Hennen constructed the following

Comparative Table of Births and Deaths among the Inhabitants of Malta, from the Year 1819 to the Year 1823 inclusive.

Years.	Mortality.		Total Mortality.	Births.	Increase of Births.
	Throughout the Island.	In the Hospitals.			
1819	2,029	367	2,396	3,687	1,291
1820	2,297	366	2,663	3,761	1,098
1821	1,912	354	2,266	3,468	1,202
1822	2,310	356	2,666	3,219	553
1823	2,566	363	2,929	3,388	459
Total	11,114	1,806	12,920	17,523	4,603

It would appear from the foregoing, that the population was then slowly increasing, the births preponderating over the deaths. The annexed table I have been favoured with by Sir F. Ponsonby. His Excellency has not informed me whether it includes Gozo or otherwise; it will be seen that it differs from the preceding table; in some years the excess of births is very slight.

Years.	Total Number of		Excess of Births.	Years.	Total Number of		Excess of Births.
	Births.	Deaths.			Births.	Deaths.	
1819	3,687	2,029	1,658	1827	3,205	2,444	761
1820	3,761	2,297	1,464	1828	3,171	2,538	633
1821	3,468	1,912	1,556	1829	3,288	2,302	986
1822	3,219	2,310	909	1830	3,499	3,407	92
1823	3,388	2,566	822	1831	3,513	2,582	931
1824	3,568	2,345	1,223	1832	3,263	2,468	795
1825	3,497	2,612	885	1833	3,329	3,171	158
1826	3,389	2,284	1,105	1834	3,312	2,732	580

The Maltese are generally of middle stature, with robust frames, and small hands and feet; the hair black, and sometimes inclined to frizzle; lips frequently thick, and skin swarthy among the common people where exposed to the atmosphere; the eye dark and bright, and among the higher classes of females, remarkable for that fullness and languishing beauty which constitutes the great charm of oriental women.

In some of the villages, such as the Casal of Zurrico, there are a remarkable number of blue-eyed persons to be met with. In general there is throughout the villages a good deal of the Spanish character displayed, but in the cities, and among the higher orders, a sort of French and Greek character is combined. The men are industrious, active, frugal; attached to their country, passive, but yet nowise deficient in courage, as they have often shewn, and they are considered the best seamen in the Mediterranean. Those in easy circumstances dress like other Europeans, but the lower orders are clothed in a loose cotton shirt, over which is a wide vest, or jacket, with silver, sometimes golden buttons, a long twisted scarf wound several times round the body, with very often a sheathed knife placed therein; loose trowsers, leaving the legs bare from nearly the knees downwards, and very peculiar shoes called *korch*, which is a leathern sole, fastened with strings, or thongs, to the foot and leg, nearly like the old Roman sandal. The head in winter is covered with a woollen cap of different colours, having a hood attached, and falling down on the back; in summer, large straw hats are worn. The women are attached to their primitive dress, consisting of a short cotton shift, a petticoat (generally of a blue colour), an upper robe opening at the side, and a corset with sleeves. The hair, covered with pomatum and powder, is arranged in a high cone in front of the head, and the face is concealed by a large black silken veil called *faldetta*, which the wearer adroitly shifts when exposing her features to a side or full view. Many ladies of the upper class have recently adopted the English costume, except during the time of performing their religious duties, when they appear at church in their ancient costume.

The Maltese marry early; instances are not rare where girls have been mothers at 13 years of age; they suffer little in childbirth; twins are a common occurrence, but no instance of triplets have ever been heard of in the island; and when we speak of such occurrences as not unfrequent in England, they shake their heads in emphatic silence. De-

formity is exceedingly rare, and monstrosity still more so;* in early infancy the children are swathed round from the shoulders to the toes, including the arms, which are laid close along the sides, so as to present a striking resemblance to an Egyptian mummy. Notwithstanding this apparently unnatural restraint, the use of the limbs is early acquired; a crippled or an impotent child is a rare sight; and the activity of the Maltese, especially as swimmers and divers, is very great. In some cases, weakly or diseased children are taught to draw their nutriment from the goats; but in general there is no difference between the food of the infant and the adult, except in quantity; the child scarcely dismissed from the breast swallowing oil, cheese, salt fish, vegetables, &c. with all the *gusto* of their parents, whose principal diet is raw vegetables, fruits, salads, &c. with a little brown bread, maccaroni, oil, garlic, cheese, and a salt sardine or anchovy, eaten raw; a draught of Sicilian wine closes the meal. Coffee and iced water are the only luxuries common to all ages and sexes: even among the higher classes, a very small quantity of animal food is used. Fish is very abundant, and none allowed to be sold 24 hours after it is caught. Tobacco, in the form of smoking, is absolutely an article of diet, but unaccompanied by drinking of wine, &c.

Bathing in the sea is a very general practice among both sexes, the time chosen being from sunset until near midnight. The siesta, or mid-day sleep is in Malta an universal custom in summer; from 12 to 2 is the hour of dinner and of siesta, and during that period no respectable person that can avoid it, is seen about the streets. Of their amusements, music is one of the most general, and it extends to the lower classes, who meet in groups at the corner of the streets, singing extempore verses to old national airs, the burden of the song being probably the praises of their mistresses, or some sarcastic observations on their rivals. Dancing, horse and boat-racing, processions in honour of the numerous saints, with

* In the female hospital there are two preparations of monstrous twins; one pair joined by the backs, and the other by the bellies.

an occasional village maypole festival, form the chief relaxations, and it is an excellent feature in the national character that they are unaccompanied by drunkenness and quarrelling. The promenades are numerous, and much frequented; that of the botanic garden, in the suburbs, is enlivened by the military music of the different regiments of the garrison. Beyond the ramparts, the places called Pietà Sliema, and St. Giuliano, present an animated scene of beautiful walks. The surrounding country is covered with a great number of elegant villas, some of which have been lately built, after their native manner, by several English gentlemen, who have chosen the charming environs of the capital as the scene of their residence.

Religion.—A scrupulous attention to the rites of their church is characteristic of the Maltese, whose established faith is that of Rome. The landed property belonging to the church is considerable; and there are about 1000 secular and regular clergy in the two islands.*

Previous to the year 1827, many of the churches enjoyed the privilege of sanctuary; and ecclesiastics were not under the jurisdiction of the civil tribunals: but a law was passed in that year abolishing those privileges, and the bishop's court has now jurisdiction only in spiritual matters. The archbishop of the island has now a seat in the legislative council.

There is a Protestant clergyman, and the service is performed in a chapel in the governor's palace; it is not, however, large enough to contain half the Protestants who reside at Valetta, and it is a well founded subject of complaint that a church has not been built. A military chaplain performs service for the garrison, in a building not very suitable for the purpose: indeed, the want of any suitable Protestant church must appear very striking to those who visit the island, when it is recollected that it has been a

* By the calendar of 1742, it appears that there were then 2,000 priests and ecclesiastics in Malta and Gozo, exclusive of the members of the order.

British possession thirty-five years. The church service is now performed in Valetta in one of the lower offices of the palace, formerly either the kitchen or wine cellar of the grand master; and the accommodation on the other side of the water, in the Borgo, is worse, consisting only of what was a sort of storehouse of small dimensions.

EDUCATION is well attended to in Malta. There is a college in Valetta, instituted by the grand master Pinto in 1771; it is held in the convent of the suppressed Jesuits, and has lately undergone complete reform. Degrees in divinity, law, and physic are conferred under certain regulations; and there is a preparatory school attached to it, in which all boys are received upon payment of a trifle. The support of the college devolves upon government, as on the expulsion of the Jesuits from Malta, their property, which now amounts to about 700*l.* a-year, was allotted for the support of the university, and of a church which now costs the government 176*l.* per annum, the remainder being devoted to the university, in which there are 490 scholars; those in higher schools (unless specially exempted by the council) pay 4*s.* 2*d.* each month, from which is defrayed the salary of the secretary (1*l.* 15*s.* 4*d.* per month), and certain pensions to superannuated professors. To this fund the students in medicine, surgery, and anatomy, do not contribute, but pay 4*s.* 2*d.* each month to their respective professors.

There are two normal schools, at which more than 1000 boys and girls are educated free of any expense. These schools, together with a small one at Gozo, are supported chiefly by government,—private subscriptions are however received. There was, for a considerable time, much jealousy on the part of the Catholic clergy on the subject of education, as it was feared that it might be made use of as the means of conversion. This feeling has subsided; and in one of the normal schools lately established, a canon of the church is the principal director.

The children are taught reading, writing, arithmetic, and the rudiments of Italian grammar, and in some instances,

English and Latin; the females are taught needlework, spinning, and weaving.

Of private schools there are 82 in Malta: viz. 24 in Valetta and Floriana; 25 in Vittoriosa, Sanglea, and Conspicua; and the remainder in the different casals, or villages. In Gozo there are six private seminaries, and a public free-school in Rabato, with 35 scholars.

THE PRESS scarcely deserves even naming. There is a single gazette under the controul of government, and all freedom or dissemination of public opinion by means of a newspaper, totally suppressed. This is not as it should be; and it is to be hoped the Maltese will not be much longer permitted to continue in a state which no Englishman who loves freedom of discussion would wish to see perpetuated.

LANGUAGE.—The upper class speak Italian; the language of the common people is a patois compounded of Arabic, German, Italian, and other languages. The Arabic, however, so far predominates, that the peasants of Malta and Barbary can without much difficulty understand each other. Captain Vella contends that the Maltese language, as it is generally spoken by the mass of the people, is still the original Punic,* which has passed unaltered through the changes and revolutions of so many nations, which have successively occupied and oppressed the island of Malta. Some slight differences may be perceived, chiefly in the pronunciation, in various parts of the island, but without disparagement to the language itself, whose substance is in every place the same. There is no national alphabet, but according to the fancy of the writer those of other tongues are adopted. English is becoming generally understood throughout the island; and the Italian ought to be got rid of as soon as practicable.

* The Rev. Mr. Hamilton, uncle to the distinguished professor of astronomy in Dublin, informed me lately that he is anxiously engaged in investigating the Carthaginian language. I would, therefore, suggest that the learned gentleman should compare the passages in Plautus with the Maltese dialect.

The Lord's Prayer in the Maltese language.* 'Missierna li inti fis meuiet jitkaddes ismech, tigi saltnatech icun li trit int chif fis sema hegda flart. Hhobsna ta culium atina illum u Ahhfrilna dnubietna chif ahhna nahhfru lil min hhata ghalina u laddahhanna fittigrif ta tentazzioni isda ehhlisna middeni. Amen.'

Libraries.—In the year 1761, the Baile De Tencen founded the public library of Malta, which was increased by many gifts from distinguished private individuals, princes and kings. The King of France contributed a select set of books to it; and it was privileged to receive copies of all works published at the royal press at Paris. The library formed at the general hospital was transferred to it, and a regulation was established, by which the books of all the deceased knights became its property; it also had an annuity of 300 crowns left in perpetuity to it, and derived some additional income by the sale of duplicates, insomuch that in 1798 the number of books, if we are to credit Boisgelin, amounted to upwards of 60,000. This library was, since the capture of the island from the French, removed to a large building adjoining the palace, formerly called the Conservatoria. It is a very respectable foundation, and contains a number of excellent and some very valuable works. This library is open to the public at certain hours of the day, but no books are lent out.

The garrison have a subscription library, both for reference and lending out; it was formed in 1806. The books are distributed under the five following heads, and the number of volumes as they stood in the library catalogue and supplement to February 1824, is thus:—

	vols.
Divinity, Ethics, Arts and Sciences, - -	426
History, Biography, Voyages, Travels, Military Publications, - - - - - -	835
Polite Literature, Poetry and Dramatic Works -	644
Novels and Romances - - - - -	356

* According to Anderson.

Periodical Publications, Pamphlets, and Miscellaneous Works - - - - - - - - 273

There are also books on medicine, surgery and the accessary sciences.

In the general hospital there is a library of medical books, founded by the military medical officers of the garrison.

MANUFACTURES—are chiefly comprised in the weaving of cotton, and the spinning of cotton thread, both of which are much prized in Greece, Germany, Barbary, &c. A variety of articles are woven, such as coverlets, table-cloths, towelling, sail-cloth, dresses for the peasantry, &c. This manufacture has long been celebrated: Diodorus Siculus (lib. v.) states, that the cotton cloth of Malta was superior to all other in firmness and softness; and Cicero, in his Oration against Verres, enumerates among the articles of his plunder certain remarkable fine cotton dresses for women wrought at Malta, together with 400 amphoræ of Maltese wines.

The value of the cottons manufactured is upwards of £118,000. Black silk stuff is also made. Ship-building is on the increase, the Maltese being good carpenters; the timber employed is chiefly from the Adriatic. About 50,000,000 of segars are annually made, and find a market in every port of the Mediterranean. Stone, for paving and building, is quarried and exported in considerable quantities to Constantinople, the Black Sea, Egypt, &c. There are manufactories on a small scale of soap, leather, maccaroni, iron bedsteads, &c. The Maltese jewellers are remarkable for the elegance of their gold fillagree-work, neck chains, &c. Salt is prepared in large quantities by exposing sea-water in the cavities of the rocks to solar evaporation. As ship-builders, the Maltese are highly prized. Large quantities of sofas, chairs, &c. are annually exported to the Ionian Isles, Greece, and other places.

AGRICULTURE AND VEGETABLE KINGDOM.—The island of Malta contains about 50,000 acres of cultivated land. The island of Gozo, 10,000.* About half is private property,

* The superficies of the island is measured at 94 square miles, that of

the remainder may be nearly divided between the crown and the church. The leases are from one to eight years, and long leases from nine to 100 years. The rent for the best land is 3*l.* per acre, but there is not much of it, and the average may be given at 1*l.* an acre. Property on short lease cannot be sub-let without the consent of the proprietor. In long leases sub-letting is allowed. The repairs fall upon the proprietor in the short leases, and upon the tenant in the long ones.

In all arable lands it is prohibited to sow wheat and barley two years running.

The land measures made use of in this country are salms, tumoli, mondelli, and misure. The salms contains 16 tumoli, the tumolo 6 mondelli, the mondello 10 misure.

The tumolo contains 256 Maltese square canne. The usual calculation is that three tumoli, four mondelli and a half, are equivalent to an English acre, so that a salm contains four acres and four-fifteenths.

The price of the best land is from 5 to 600 scudi the tumolo, (50*l.* sterling). Land of moderate quality sells from 2 to 400 scudi, and the lowest from 2 to 100 scudi, and even less (16*l.* 13*s.* 4*d.* to 33*l.* 6*s.* 8*d.*). The best land rents for about 15 scudi (1*l.* 5*s.*); the second quality for about 10 scudi, and the inferior from 5 scudi to 2 scudi (8*s.* 4*d.*, to 3*s.* 4*d.*).

Gozo at 26. The number of acres given under the head of produce in the return, at page 221, is 100,501; but 120 square miles only contain 76,800 acres, consequently there is an error of 23,701 to be accounted for. The measurement of the superficies is correct; but it is made upon the plane of a trigonometrical survey, consequently the inequalities of ground are not allowed for; and although there is no hill exceeding 700 feet in height, there are constant undulations in the surface of both islands. But another cause of error exists in estimating the number of acres; no chain survey has ever been made of the islands, and the number of acres is stated from the calculations of the principal magistrate in each of the villages, and it is presumed that when property is so intersected as it is in Malta, and that more than a third of the surface is barren rock, much error prevails in the calculations.

A man farming 10 salms is obliged to maintain constantly two labourers, who generally receive from 100 to 120 scudi a-year (8*l.* 6*s.* 8*d.* to 10*l.*) each, and the farmer generally feeds them in whole or in part. His other labourers he pays as he wants them, by the day. The price of labour was in 1816 as high as seven and eight, and even ten tari (11½*d.* 1*s.* 1½*d.* and 1*s.* 4½*d.*) per diem, in the summer time. In 1820 it was reduced to six and five tari (10*d.* and 8¼*d.*). At present the price is about four tari (6¾*d.*) per diem, and for this the labourers are obliged to furnish their own tools. Sometimes they are paid in money, at others in meschiato (that is, a mixture of wheat and barley). When they are paid according to the latter mode, they receive two tumoli each a-week; and this is the method which is generally preferred both by the labourers and farmers.

The principal objects of agriculture are cotton, grain, and sulla; and it is to these that the farmers principally direct their attention; they, however, extensively cultivate beans, peas, a species of wild pea called cucciarda, carrots, melons, potatoes, cabbages, cauliflowers, and other articles of that description; these are principally cultivated as intermediate crops between cotton and corn.

In general the farmers divide their lands in two equal portions; on the one half they cultivate cotton, and on the other grain. The most important object of agriculture is cotton, and it is estimated that one-tenth of the island is annually dedicated to its cultivation. This always requires good land, and its cultivation is attended with considerable trouble and expense. The farmer begins to prepare his land for cotton in August, by spreading a quantity of strong manure over it, and breaking it up with large hoes and pickaxes to a considerable depth. In this state it is left till the rain commences, that the manure may be well washed in, and this mode of manuring is generally sufficient for four years, and sometimes even for five, when the land is of a very good quality. The large clods are now broken with hoes, and the ground levelled. After this it is ploughed two

or three times, and it is then in a fit state to receive the seed, which is simply scattered over it by hand, and covered by means of a kind of rude harrow. The early cotton is sown in April, but it is frequently not put into the ground until May. If rain follows, this sowing is sufficient; but if there succeeds a continuance of dry weather the seed is lost, and the farmer is then obliged to have recourse to a very expensive mode of sowing, by making separate holes for the seed, and pouring water upon them. When the plants begin to shew themselves above the surface of the ground, the land is hoed two or three times; and when they have grown to the height of two or three inches, the tops of them are nipped off to prevent their running to stalk. This is the last operation previous to collecting the crop, which takes place in the months of October and November.

Sometimes the cotton plants are left in the ground for two years, and even for three; but the most common mode, except where the land is very fine, is to change the crop every year. The next important object is grain; but a small quantity of pure wheat is sown in this island. In general wheat is mixed in equal quantities with barley, and it is termed meschiato; and the reason they give in cultivating it in this manner is, that the strong stalks of the barley afford protection to the wheat. This species of cultivation is not attended with a great deal of expense to the farmers; for supposing that the land has been already manured, one ploughing is sufficient to prepare it for sowing, and when sown it is ploughed a second time merely for the purpose of covering the seed. After the plants begin to shew themselves, the ground is hoed, and this is the last operation before the harvest. The corn is beat out on the ground (which is prepared on purpose) by cattle; and if the farmer is obliged to hire animals for this operation, the custom is to give the straw, or a part of it, for their use. The barley is afterwards separated from the wheat by means of sieves, with great dexterity.

The next object is sulla. This is generally cultivated as

an intermediate crop between cotton and corn, but in that case, it must be taken off green. For this, as for grain, the land only requires one ploughing, and it is generally sown in August, after the corn is taken off. When cotton is to follow, it is out in March and April, the roots being left in the ground, which are said to be of service to the land, and equivalent to one year's manure. When sulla is left to come to its maturity, no other crop can follow that year. It sometimes happens that the seed remains in the ground a whole year to the great loss and inconvenience of the farmer. In this case it produces a very early crop the succeeding year. When Sulla is not cultivated as the intermediate crop, they generally plant either beans, or peas, or vegetables, which are taken off the ground in time to admit the corn or cotton which is to succeed.

According to the common estimate, a tumolo of land produces a quintal of cotton in the pod, and it requires three quintals of cotton in the pod to produce a quintal of cotton wool. Some lands, however, under very favourable circumstances, will give a quintal and a half of cotton in the pod, but this is not very usual. The expense attending the production of one quintal of cotton wool is now from 30 to 35 scudi (*2l.* 10*s.* to *2l.* 18*s.* 4*d.*), exclusive of the rent of the land, which varies from 10 to 15 scudi (16*s.* 8*d.* to 25*s.*) the tumolo. However, it may be remarked, that the lands which let for 15 scudi (25*s.*) will generally produce somewhat more than one quintal of cotton wool upon every three tumoli; therefore the average expense of its cultivation may be stated from 60 to 65 scudi (*5l.* to *5l.* 8*s.* 4*d.*). The price of cotton in the market is at present exceedingly low, being no more than 65 scudi (*5l.* 8*s.* 4*d.*) the quintal. However, the farmer, besides the cotton, gets something for the seeds and the stalks. It is considered that when the cotton sells for five scudi (8*s.* 4*d.*) the pesa, or 100 scudi (*8l.* 6*s.* 8*d.*) the quintal, the cultivator is well paid; and, in fact, this seems to have been always considered the criterion by which the gain or loss of the cultivator is to be estimated.

The expense of cultivating grain is much less, being, including rent, on an average, not more than from 15 to 17 scudi (1*l.* 5*s.* to 1*l.* 8*s.* 4*d.*) a tumolo. A tumolo of land will produce about a salm and a half of meschiato. The price of this, when the wheat and barley are in equal quantities, is one scudo and two taris (1*s.* 11¼*d.*) the tumolo (the measures of capacity have the same denominations as the land measures, and are divided in the same manner) making the value of the produce about 27 scudi (2*l.* 5*s.*); but as there is generally more barley than wheat in their meschiato, and only the very best lands will produce a salm and a half, the average value of the produce of a tumolo of land may be stated at about 20 scudi (1*l.* 13*s.* 4*d.*). To this is to be added the straw, the value of which is generally from four to five scudi (6*s.* 8*d.* to 8*s.* 4*d.*). However, a portion of this is very frequently given in lieu of payment for the animals hired to tread out the grain.

The expense attending the cultivation of sulla is nearly the same as that of grain, and the produce is also nearly the same in regard to value, if it is allowed to dry on the ground. If it is cut green, the produce of a tumolo is valued from 8 to 10 scudi (13*s.* 4*d.* to 16*s.* 8*d.*) The beans, peas, cucciarda, &c., may be considered as producing the same, in point of value, as the green sulla.

It is from the sale of their cotton and cattle that the farmers expect principally to be enabled to pay their rents, and replace their stock. The wheat and barley they generally keep for their own use, and for the purpose of paying their servants and labourers, selling only the surplus; and they generally cultivate no more sulla than they require for the use of their cattle. This, at least, is the general custom of the great farmers here.

Culture of Cotton.

	Scudi.	Tar.	s.	d.
1. All land ought to be well broken and manured, at least every eighth year, and the proportion of expense for such, on two tumoli of land, may be calculated about	4	0	6	8

	Scudi.	Tari.	s.	d.
2. In October and November it requires sapping, when four persons are employed for one day at four tari each	1	4	2	$2\frac{3}{4}$
3. In April it must be ploughed, when two oxen are required for half a day . .	0	10	1	$4\frac{3}{4}$
4. Shortly after, two men are required for one day, to level the ground . . .	0	8	1	$1\frac{3}{4}$
5. In May a man is employed for one day to dig small pits in the superficies of the ground, wherein to lay the seeds . .	0	4	0	$6\frac{3}{4}$
6. Ditto, a boy and a woman are employed for one day to sow	0	2	0	$3\frac{1}{4}$
7. In May, ten boys and women are required to carry water, and to water the seed, one day	2	6	4	2
8. Ditto, a man for one day to draw water from the well or tank	0	4	0	$6\frac{3}{4}$
9. Ditto, four pese of seed, the price of which is	1	0	1	8
10. In June, the plants having appeared, the superfluous ones must be taken from the pits, leaving in each only four or five, for which purpose two women are required one day	0	6	0	10
11. In June, shortly after the preceding operation, the ground is superficially sapped by four men, one day	1	4	2	$2\frac{3}{4}$
12. In July the plants are topped and chipped, to prevent the overgrowing of the stalk and leaves. Performed by women. .	0	8	1	$1\frac{3}{4}$
13. In September the cotton is gathered (generally by women and children), for which 10 tari the quintal are paid; and supposing the produce to be two quintals, the expense would be	1	8	2	$9\frac{1}{4}$
14. The cotton is generally kept six				

	Scudi.	Tari.	s.	d.
weeks. The expense of keeping it in the loft, &c., is two tari per week . . .	1	0	1	8
15. The expense of separating the cotton from the pod and seed, by the wheel, is one scudo per quintal	2	0	3	4

and it is calculated that the above two quintals will give about 12 *pese*, or 60 rotoli of cotton *wool*.*

When the cotton is sown without the operation set forth in Nos. 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, the expense attendant thereon is saved; but in such case the ground must be twice ploughed, and six, instead of four pese of seed, must be sown. This is the original method generally practised, but great disadvantage arises should there not succeed a sufficient fall of rain, when the loss of labour and expense is the consequence.

In 1830, three quintals of pods were gathered from one tumolo of land; this is the largest produce known. A quintal and a half is considered as a good crop in good land. The following is an average of the produce of good land:—

Salm of Good Land Cultivated in	Seed.	
Wheat . . .	1 Salm	20 Salms—in very good land—24.
Meschiato . .	1 do.	20 Ditto
Barley . . .	1 do.	20 Ditto—in some very good lands—30.
Sulla . . .	4 do.	192 Loads.
Cotton, 1 Tumolo	5 Rotoli	150 Rotoli.

The following returns shew the state of agriculture for the last seven years:—

* It is only recently that the export, in a raw state, of cotton grown in Malta was permitted. It was formerly kept in the island until spun into yarn, or otherwise manufactured, with a view to the employment of the people; but this restriction was found oppressive to the landowner and grower of cotton, without any corresponding benefit to the labouring classes, or lower orders; and the price and growth of cotton have both rather increased since the relaxation respecting export, without, it is believed, diminishing the quantity manufactured in the island.

State of Cultivation, and Number of Stock in Malta and Gozo since 1828.

	Years.	Nature of Crops, and Number of Acres in each Crop.												Number of Live Stock.				
		Wheat.	Meschiato.	Barley.	Beans and other Pulse.	Cotton.	Vegetable Fruits, &c.	Forage.	Sesamum.	Cumin Seed.	Pasture.	Total Number of Acres in Crop.	Number of Acres of Uncultivated Land.	Horses, Mules, and Asses.	Horned Cattle.	Sheep.	Goats.	Swine.
	1828	11,857	9,829	5,808	11,395	11,754	3,681	5,448	122	44	3,536	63,469	50,639	4,043	5,505	12,373	3,938	
	1829	10,338	9,133	5,720	5,404	9,516	5,684	7,778	71	740	9,185	63,569	46,909	5,080	10,814	13,081	4,227	
	1830	10,836	9,624	6,344	4,018	10,489	5,285	6,589	60	374	2,701	56,320	46,319	4,905	6,457	13,948	4,729	
	1831	10,788	9,432	7,424	5,205	12,454	4,894	7,721	266	297	2,950	61,481	46,510	5,368	7,193	14,248	4,454	
	1832	8,499	10,275	8,110	4,484	11,236	6,163	8,445	159	474	3,550	61,395	46,848	5,574	6,078	12,473	4,686	
	1833	8,751	7,197	5,820	4,837	11,553	5,121	7,752	216	1,028	2,787	55,062	46,120	4,602	5,954	14,785	4,150	
Malta	1834	9,090	4,054	5,937	3,121	7,364	3,842	5,120	234	1,313	2,031	42,976	45,996	3,700	5,773	8,725	3,234	3,845
Gozo		539	3,245	85	579	2,615	923	1,140	19	..	617	9,762	1,767	1,275	440	4,723	1,020	505
Cumino		1	4	8	..	..	13	5	..	..	..	31	572	3	7	8	15	
	Total..	9,630	8,203	6,030	3,700	9,979	4,748	6,265	253	1,313	2,648	52,769	48,335	4,978	6,220	13,457	4,269	4,350

In the years preceding 1834—Malta, Gozo and Cumino, are included in one return, which I derive from the Colonial Office; the data for 1834 I have received from Sir F. Ponsonby, and therein the produce of each island is given separate, and accurate, for I have compared it with the Colonial Office Returns.

Quantity of Produce, and Prices thereof, in Malta and Gozo, since 1828.

Years.	Nature and Quantity of Produee, and									Average Prices of each Description thereof.							
	Wheat.	Meschiato.	Barley.	Beans.	Cotton.	Vegetables, Fruit, &c.	Green Peas.	Cumin Seed.	Forage.	Wheat.	Meschiato.	Barley.	Beans.	Cotton.	Cumin Seed.	Sesamum.	Forage.
	bush.	bush.	bush.	bush.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	per serna, or load of 10 bushels.	per bushel.	per bushel.	per bushel.	per bushel.	per lb.	per lb.	per lb.	per serna, or load of 10 bushels.
1828	146787	184005	115623	22408	3135825	8227699	533575	10150	65867	5s. 3d.	3s. 9d.	2s. 5d.	1s.	2½d.	2d.	5d.	1s. 3d.
1829	123026	163887	102815	80134	4263498	20569210	196192	40950	100583	4s. 2d. to 6s. 9d.	3s. 1d. to 4s. 2d.	2s. 1d. to 3s. 4d.	2s. 3d. to 3s. 7d.	1d. to ½d.	1d. to 3d.	1d. to 4d.	1s. 1d. to 2s. 1d.
1830	132711	161469	96044	58755	4973604	25295301	145035	134162	128613	5s. to 5s. 1d.	3s. 4d. to 3s. 9d.	2s. 6d. to 2s. 9d.	2s. 6d.	1½d.	1d.	4d.	8d. to 1s. 1s. 8d.
1831	46319	121612	82521	46849	4124150	25447581	88248	127264	366226	3s. 2d. to 6s. 4d.	2s. 10d. to 4s. 5d.	2s. 1d. to 3s. 4d.	2s. 3d. to 3s. 4d.	1d.	1d. to 2d.	1d.	1s. 11d. to
1832	77739	218640	157672	57091	3445211	27556875	102211	209128	164831	3s. 9d. to 5s. 6d.	2s. 3d. to 4s. 2d.	1s. 10d. to 2s. 6d.	1s. 10d. to 3s. 4d.	1d.	1d. to 2d.	½d. to 1d.	2s. 1d.
1833	78981	96188	54142	54285	3642429	28026228	*	975140	123850	3s. 9d. to 5s. 8d.	2s. 6d. to 4s. 2d.	1s. 10d. to 3s. 3d.	1s. 10d. to 2s. 9d.	1d. to 2d.	2d.	8s. 5d. to 9s. 8d. a bl.	6d. to 2s. 1d.
Malta 1834	116046	120036	115998	35213	2347947	40562135		5654031	111710	4s. 7d. to 6s. 1d.	2s. 6d. to 4s.	1s. 10d. to 2s. 11d.	2s. 1d. to 2s. 3d.	2d. 3d.	2d.	6s. 11d. to 10s. a bsl.	1s. 4d. to 2s. 1d.
Gozo	7780	81514	1960	12733	1392125	1623690		..	25860								
Cumino	271	110	228	..	..	1750		..	500								
Total . .	123853	201660	118186	47946	3740072	42186575		5654031	138070								

* Sesamum 813 bushels noted in this year.

The following is a statement of all foreign wheat sold and delivered for the consumption of the public, from the year 1823 (exclusive of the supplies for the service of the army and navy), and a return of the native produce of wheat and meschiato (one-third wheat and two-thirds barley) from the year 1828.

	Total Consumption of Foreign Wheat.	Native Crops From 1828 to 1834, both inclusive.	
	Salms.	Wheat.	Meschiato.
In the Year 1823	59,444		
1824	68,327		
1825	59,785		
1826	60,641		
1827	67,756	Salms.	Salms.
1828	49,854	19,069	23,948
1829	54,960	15,843	25,040
1830	49,904	17,757	21,195
1831	65,459	5,682	15,538
1832	53,612	9,986	29,914
1833	59,588	9,983	12,787
1834	55,150	15,711	26,539
	704,480		

N. B. The native crop is estimated, upon an average, at 30,000 salms.

The average prices of wheat sold to the public in Malta, during the undermentioned periods, has been:—

	Years. From	Years. To	Number of Years.	Wheat per Salm, sterling.	Bread per lb. avoir-dupois.
				s. d.	d. 12ths of a penny.
Govt. Monopoly.	1781	1790	10	40 3½	1 2
	1791	1800	10	46 3½	1 5
	1801	1814	14	62 8	1 10
	1815	..	1	66 8	1 11
	1816	..	1	64 2	1 10
	1817	..	1	66 8	1 11
	1818	..	1	66 8	1 11
	1819	..	1	55 5½	1 7
	1820	..	1	43 9½	1 4
	1821	..	1	48 8½	1 6
	1822	..	1	40 10	1 2

	Years. From	Number of Years.	Wheat per Salm, sterling.	Bread per lb. avoir-dupois.
			s. d.	d. 12ths of a penny.
Open Trade.	1823	1	33 4	1 1
	1824	1	31 2½	1 0
	1825	1	36 10½	1 2
	1826	1	37 4	1 1
	1827	0¾	39 8	1 1
	1828	1	44 11¾	1 6
	1829	1	44 6¾	1 5
	1830	1	40 5	1 2
	1831	1	43 7¾	1 5
	1832	1	43 3¼	1 3
	1833	1	41 5	1 2
	1834	1	42 0¼	1 3

In order to shew the state of cultivation in different parts of the island, I subjoin the following minute return, as laid before the Board of Trade for the past year.

Return of the Produce, Stock, &c. of each District in Malta in 1832.

Name of Casa or District.	CROPS. Nature of the Crops, and Number of Acres of Land in each Crop.											STOCK. Number of				PRODUCE. Nature of the Produce, and Quantity of each.								
	Wheat.	Meschiato.	Barley.	Beans and other Pulse.	Cotton.	Vegetables, Fruits, &c.	Forage.	Sesamum.	Cumin Seed.	Pasture.	Total Number of Acres in Crop.	Number of Acres of uncultivated Land.	Horses.	Horned Cattle.	Sheep.	Goats.	Wheat.	Meschiato.	Barley.	Beans.	Cotton.	Vegetables, Fruits, &c.	Green Peas.	Cumin Seed.	Forage.	Sesamum.
																	Bush.	Bush.	Bush.	Bush.	Lbs.	Lbs.	Lbs.	Lbs.	Some.	Some.
Notabile and Dingli	670	706	120	306	511	286	453	—	—	186	3338	540	333	380	1097	375	7000	22272	1496	889	191625	1726900	10325	—	3761	—
Fornaro	322	328	282	178	222	439	799	—	—	333	2763	—	611	1080	280	202	7875	15750	17325	3937	14000	4133115	—	—	17000	—
Birchircara	363	416	278	16	255	140	226	2	2	82	75	1351	246	591	292	294	5827	7670	8646	291	85800	539000	7875	41650	7618	8
Zeitun	2136	402	1647	1245	1731	455	1465	18	53	180	9332	124	320	200	530	509	4725	1417	7875	984	178500	1944250	3325	16750	1010	118
Zebbug	289	661	41	152	355	408	353	—	—	69	2307	115	244	394	417	210	1677	7512	1260	4803	276375	4022775	1050	—	13016	31
Musta	1591	262	963	129	1825	573	715	—	—	164	5421	159	480	584	1272	351	68169	9979	24168	866	599075	174725	5775	—	25010	23
Zurrico	550	1119	1492	143	124	93	80	18	84	99	3842	2700	205	112	418	69	874	4756	8071	4110	57575	588525	1400	20825	1966	31
Zabbar	130	54	235	113	275	242	122	25	33	96	1325	66	235	284	265	124	1519	1882	9946	779	82775	2036650	1837	16275	2980	30
																										Lbs. 4585
Safi and Chercop	18	124	413	111	62	49	155	36	35	178	1176	—	44	103	165	25	157	2362	4725	1181	17500	1050000	4725	23625	1960	Some. 23
Seggieni	200	955	69	82	650	1110	100	4	14	257	3441	510	158	242	594	58	2638	17569	2598	2023	237625	6200050	1050	8750	3555	23
Nazaro	564	201	559	36	821	40	262	24	1	22	2568	38227	289	324	866	219	7851	4410	16253	724	135800	128625	—	—	75	46
Gudia	153	96	351	78	679	22	103	24	64	40	1590	22	77	121	211	53	748	1488	8093	834	49210	395325	—	30773	3992	94
Ottard	98	80	67	44	89	62	61	—	—	35	541	44	47	70	209	58	1777	2496	2748	63	28875	530800	—	—	3280	—
Lia	122	109	80	25	104	13	71	—	11	—	535	—	51	30	106	72	2126	1055	1606	78	51450	105175	—	—	2248	—
Micabiba	56	195	404	33	87	9	33	—	—	24	541	132	37	43	97	25	212	3197	3331	354	41825	26477	—	6475	936	8
Crendi	62	235	111	27	235	18	13	4	36	18	754	62	60	70	90	62	330	4489	2598	771	16911	14700	1050	7875	86	—
Luca	53	67	133	36	36	311	44	—	44	44	768	1776	36	99	233	60	708	2126	6536	1771	50750	87500	350	17500	950	—
Asciach	23	267	445	27	36	44	55	—	44	27	909	53	68	81	305	155	496	7599	12631	126	36750	167900	—	3325	700	—
Gargur	350	129	284	22	346	31	155	—	5	44	1836	40	132	250	397	58	2919	3850	8457	960	61915	1698883	39200	7262	3446	—
Balzan	45	87	49	5	24	11	44	—	4	—	266	—	43	66	69	27	667	2142	1435	118	11025	50750	—	3790	1560	—
Tarxen	64	55	122	33	162	49	91	16	16	20	628	119	57	378	219	253	567	1757	4578	779	63525	175000	—	6250	5790	70
Malta	7743	6550	7930	2832	8337	4230	5633	147	474	1716	45612	44589	3773	5522	7911	3345	67652	126007	154373	20741	2043986	26351475	77962	209128	100909	
Gozo	756	3725	142	1652	2899	1896	2801	12	—	1834	15717	1371	1799	549	4662	1336	10057	92633	2898	30350	1401225	1187900	24249	—	63402	
Cumino	—	—	18	—	—	37	—	—	—	—	66	888	2	7	—	5	—	—	491	—	—	17500	—	—	—	
Grand Total	8499	10275	8110	4484	11236	6163	8445	159	474	3550	61395	46848	5574	6078	12473	4686	77739	218640	167672	57091	3445211	27556875	102211	209128	164811	

* Or loads of 10 bundles.

Cummin seeds and aniseeds are successfully cultivated, and exported in considerable quantity to the surrounding countries in the Mediterranean, as well as to England and America; and the cummin seeds of Malta are as good as any, if not the best, in the world. The squills grown and dried in Malta, are found to produce the best oxamel attainable from that bulb; and the quantity of oranges hitherto furnished by Malta to the tables of the luxurious in France and England, might be greatly increased. Indeed, the oranges of Malta are confessedly the finest of the Mediterranean; and its melons are superior to the best of the southern countries of Europe. There is a variety of other delicate fruits. Vegetation of aromatic plants and herbs of every sort, aided by rich pastures refreshed by the regular falling of nocturnal dews, enable the natives to rear considerable herds of cattle, and flocks of sheep and goats, whose flesh, aromatized by excellent food, possesses an exquisite flavour. Poultry is plentiful and excellent. Quails, and a great diversity of other wild-fowl, never fail to come in vast flights at the time of their annual migrations.

Much attention is bestowed on the management of bees; a great many hives are kept in several parts of the island, from which they yearly procure a large stock of deliciously-flavoured honey. Great pains are also bestowed on the breeds of asses and mules, and the qualities of these useful animals have been highly improved by the inhabitants. The asses, especially, are well known for their unparalleled strength and beauty, and always sell at a high price.

The annexed return of the number of cattle, &c. in the Islands of Malta and Gozo, 1st January, 1835, has been furnished me by Sir Frederick Ponsonby.

	Bullocks.	Sheep.	Goats.	Swine.
In Malta . .	4,437	8,501	3,213	3,845
In Gozo . .	447	4,731	1,035	505

Return of the Number of Carts and Caleches in Malta and Gozo, which pay Licences, 1st January, 1835.

	Malta.	Gozo.	Totals.
Carts . .	1,137	25	1,162
Caleches .	264	14	278
			1,440

Carts employed solely on the farms are exempted from licence. The number may be estimated, in the two islands, at about 800. The licence on carts is to be taken off on the 1st April, 1835.

The fig-tree (domesticated and wild) abound in Malta; and some curious facts as to its habitudes and treatment, are thus detailed by Boisgelin. 'The *ficus sativa*, or domestic fig-tree, differing in this from other fruit-trees, bears its fruit on the large branches. The figs grow at the origin of the leaves, without having been preceded by any apparent flower, which has occasioned doubts whether the tree produces any. But the flowers are concealed within the fruit, on opening which, at a proper time, we may perceive in the inside, round the crown of the fruit, the male flowers, which are stamina supported by small stylets; and the female, which are situate near the pedicle. These flowers are succeeded by small hard seeds.

'The fruit of the fig-tree is larger or smaller, more or less round, and varies in its colour, according to the different species of the tree on which it is produced; but it always approaches to the figure of a pear. When perfectly ripe, it is extremely soft and succulent. Naturalists have enumerated thirty varieties of the fig-tree; of which the two that succeed best in cultivation are those that bear the figs universally known by the names of the *round fig*, and the *long fig*. The latter bears most fruit, the former is the earliest; and both are excellent.

'The fig-tree thrives best, in general, in light soils; but it also succeeds extremely well in stony grounds; and a good aspect renders its fruit more sweet and delicious. This tree

is of a very delicate temperament, and cannot withstand the frost, except when covered with straw, or sheltered in a green-house.

'The wild fig-tree *(caprificus)* resembles, in all its parts, the domestic fig-tree, of which it appears to be, in some measure, only a variety; but it bears fruit that serves for *caprification*, of which the ancients have said so much, but which many learned men have treated as a fabulous, at least useless, operation.

'This operation consists in suspending in different parts of a domestic fig-tree, several wild figs strung on a thread. The flies or gnats which issue from these, introduce themselves into the umbilicus of the domestic figs, and by their punctures cause in them a fermentation which contributes to their ripening. A careful examination of the history of the wild fig has divested this operation of what is apparently wonderful in it, and demonstrated its utility.

The wild fig-tree, or *caprificus*, known at Malta by the name of *tokar*, is the *ornos* of the isles of the Archipelago. The three kinds of fruit which it bears in the course of the year, have names in the Maltese language corresponding to those given them by the Greeks. Thus the *tokarleonel* in Maltese answer to the *fornites* of the Greeks; the *tokarlanos* to the *cratirites*, and the *tokartayept* to the *orni*. *Tokarleonel*, or *fornites*, are the figs of autumn, which appear in the month of August, and continue till November without ripening. In them are engendered small worms, produced from eggs deposited by a kind of gnats, which are only found in the neighbourhood of the wild fig-trees. These worms are a species of very small ichneumons, of a shining black colour. In the months of October and November, having become gnats, they puncture the second fruits or *tokarlanos*, the *cratirites* of the Greeks, which do not appear till the end of September, and which may be called winter figs. The autumnal figs fall soon after the gnats have been produced, but the winter figs remain on the tree till the month of May following, and contain the eggs

which have been deposited by the gnats of the autumnal figs. In the month of May, the *tokartayept*, or *orni*, which may be called the spring figs, begin to appear. When they have attained a certain size, and their eye begins to open, they are pierced in that part by the gnats produced in the winter figs; though this is sometimes not necessary for the gnats to introduce themselves into the fig, as they are able to make a passage through the leaves that close the umbilicus. This opening, made by the two teeth with which the heads of these little ichneumons are armed, afterwards closes, and the eye of the fig does not again open till three or four days before the gnats issue from the fruit. The skin of the wild figs is sleek, smooth, and of a deep green: no puncture of the insects is discernible on the external surface. When near maturity they grow soft, and become yellowish. On opening them, we find their interior construction similar to that of the domestic fig,* that is to say, the leaves are in the upper part, nearest to the umbilicus, the stamina next, and then follow the seeds, which are a kind of kernels filled with small grains, and which occupy the greatest space.

The wild figs, whatever may be their degree of maturity, have no sweet and luscious liquor; their inside is always dry and farinaceous. When they are become nearly as large as nuts, the gnats make their entrance by the umbilicus, and deposit in them their eggs; roving at first about the inside. All those which these insects neglect to enter in this manner languish, their kernels will not grow, and at length they become dry and shrivelled, and fall off without ripening. Those, on the contrary, that are fecundated by the puncture of the gnats, visibly increase in size; and the seeds, which are larger than in the domestic fig, soon fill the whole inside of the fruit.

Every kernel of the fig is the habitation of a gnat; and if the integument of the seed in which these insects are inclosed be opened at a proper time, they will come out, and after having dried their wings in the sun for a few minutes fly

* See La Hire, 'Mémoires de l'Académie,' 1712.

away. On examining these kernels before the fig is perfectly ripe, we discover on their surface, with the aid of a strong magnifier, some small brown spots, imperceptible to the naked eye; and after having detached the upper part with very fine scissars, we perceive some *living particles*, that is to say, well-formed *nymphs*. As soon as the small worms are disclosed, they pierce the yet tender membrane of the seed, feed on the kernel it contains, and remain there as in a habitation very convenient for their metamorphosis. These worms are never found roving in the inside of the figs, but after having thus lived a certain time under this form, they are metamorphosed into gnats, having a long auger in the hinder part of their bodies.

These insects, from their retired situation, and their extreme minuteness, it would seem must be exempt from enemies; they have, however, two which are very formidable to them. One is a small ichneumon, of a cinnamon colour, with a very long auger; and the other an insect with a scaly head and corslet; its hinder part is formed like a tail annexed to the corslet; and its head, which only adheres to the body by a very small ligature, is armed with two teeth. These likewise have their lodgment in the kernels of the fig, like the other gnats. The latter species does not appear to be intended to fly: it leaves the eye of the fig, without becoming a winged insect.

There are seven or eight different species of fig-trees at Malta, but caprification is only used for two of them.

The first gives two gatherings in the year, one in June, when the figs which do not ripen till the latter end of the month are succulent and larger than in France; the other in August, when the figs gathered during the whole course of the month are less delicate and smaller. The earlier ones do not require, like the latter, to be caprificated.

The second species, the same with that which is so fruitful in the isles of the Archipelago, bears only once a-year: the figs are small, of a whitish colour, and sweet, without much taste.

But whence arises the necessity of caprificating these two species of fig-trees more particularly than the others? It is certain that the tree of the first species which has produced a great quantity of large and succulent figs, is, so to speak, exhausted, and has not strength to furnish sufficient nourishment to the second figs, which begin to appear at the time when the first are ripe; consequently these second figs, not receiving the nutritious juice necessary to them, will fall before they are ripe; and this inconvenience can only be remedied by caprification. The introduction of the gnats causes a fermentation in them which accelerates their ripening, in the same manner as worm-eaten fruits always ripen before those that are sound. Hence the figs which would be two months before they would be ripe, will be fit to eat three weeks earlier; and when the time of their fall is arrived, the quantity will be much greater. Many individuals do not caprificate their second figs, to avoid fatiguing their trees; for experience has shewn, that the crop of first figs is usually bad in the year following caprification, because the fig-tree has been forced to nourish too great a quantity of fruit in the same year.

Let us now examine what are the reasons for the caprification of the second species of figs. They are the same as in the former case, though the object of the operation is different. I have already mentioned the quantity of fruit which this tree bears: it is such that frequently the branches cannot be seen on account of the figs with which they are loaded. When the caprification of this kind of fig-tree is neglected, a great quantity of the fruit falls off before it ripens, because the tree is overloaded with it. The difference of the produce of a caprificated tree from that of another which has not undergone this operation, is immense; since a fig-tree which would scarcely yield 25 pounds of figs that should be ripe and proper for drying, will in consequence of this mode of treatment, produce more than 280 pounds.

It is to be observed that the figs which are not caprificated artificially, but only by the accidental removal of the gnats

from one fig-tree to another, are much preferable to others: whence it is that the figs of Provence, where the practice of caprification is unknown, notwithstanding the same species of fig-tree is cultivated there as at Malta and in the Levant, are much superior to the dried figs of the Archipelago. It is also to be remarked that the heat of the sun which is sufficient to dry the figs that have not been caprificated, is not so for those that have undergone this operation. They must be dried in the oven; which gives them a disagreeable taste, but is necessary to destroy the eggs of the insects which they contain.

Caprification by the suspension of wild figs, though most in use, is not, however, the only method employed to hasten the maturity of figs. If, by chance, the peasants of the Levant, who know with wonderful exactness the precious moment for caprification; suffer it to elapse, they have recourse to an expedient which frequently succeeds. It consists in spreading over the domestic figs the flowers of a plant which they call *ascolimbos* or *scolimos*, and in which are sometimes found gnats that will pierce the figs; or perhaps the gnats of the wild figs seek their food in these flowers. This caprification, when it succeeds, completely supplies the place, in the effect it produces, of that which had been neglected.

Some persons have also employed with success another method for hastening the maturity of figs without depriving them of any part of their good qualities, by putting with a pencil a little olive oil on the eye of the fig, or pricking it with an oiled feather or straw.*

This fruit, so salutary and useful because it makes a part of the food of the people among whom it is produced in abundance, becomes dangerous when it has not acquired a perfect maturity; which is known by its still containing a milky liquor in its pedicle and skin. It then causes dysenteries and fevers. Water is the liquor most proper to dilute the pulp

* See Du Hamel. He thinks that in this case the oil produces nearly the same effect as the insects in caprification.

of figs in the stomach, and to remedy a certain inconvenient viscosity of the saliva. As to dried figs, they are esteemed pectoral and emollient.

It now only remains for me to refute an error too commonly received, viz., that the wild fig-tree is the male of the domestic fig-tree. Pontedera, who conceived this idea, supposes that the former furnishes the farina, or dust of the stamina, necessary to fecundate the fruits of the latter; and that the gnats are the bearers of this dust, which they deposit in the figs into which they introduce themselves. But had he attentively considered the gnats when they first come out of the wild-fig, he would have seen that they are, indeed, then covered with a white dust, derived in part from the stamina through which they have made their way, and from the inside of the fig, which is farinaceous; by continuing his observations, he would also have perceived, that immediately on their leaving the fig they employ six or seven minutes in drying their wings in the sun, and in disengaging them from the dust with which they are incumbered; and that when they take their flight, not the slightest vestige of this dust remains, but that they are of a shining black colour when they make their way into the domestic figs. This fact entirely subverts the principle on which this observer and his partisans appear to have founded their system of fecundation.'*

The figs of Malta, which, under ordinary circumstances, are a very wholesome article of food (and when dried in an oven, furnishing, with a little barley bread, a very general nutriment for a large portion of the population), are sometimes diseased, whether from insects or not, is not well ascertained, but under those circumstances they do not ripen properly, and retain a very viscid and acrid juice, injurious to the bowels in no ordinary degree. The winds are the most common causes of the diseases of the vegetable kingdom in Malta. The sirocco, when it blows long in the beginning of summer, is very frequently succeeded by a blight of the corn, and in autumn a similar effect is produced on the cotton:

* Boisgelin's Malta, vol. i. p. 148.

the police, however, is so rigid, that the damaged wheat or other grain is excluded from the market, and its deleterious effects upon the health of man and the lower animals are prevented.

The plants of Malta also suffer severely from a variety of insects of the '*apis*' genus; they are also infested by other insects in great abundance, some natives, others said to be imported by the sirocco winds. The most noxious of these is the Hister unicolor. These insects are very abundant in the spring, and are called by the English the 'Barbary bug;' they much resemble a bee, but their motions are very torpid, insomuch that they are easily picked off the plants by the hand. The 'Hister' greedily attacks the rose (one of the finest and most abundant productions of the Maltese gardens), rolling itself up in the flower-caps, and luxuriating on the young blossoms; but it is by no means confined to them; it does a vast deal of damage to other plants while in flower. Like some other insects of the cleoptera order, and of the genera Dermestes and Byrrhus, they possess the singular property of counterfeiting death when touched.

The following is a Catalogue of the principal Plants, the natural growth of Malta:—Thymus; Thymus serpyllum; Origanum majorana; Salvia; Mentha; Valeriana; Galium; Staphylea pinnata; Cochlearia; Sempervivum; Acanthus; Medicago sativa; Trifolium; Amaranthus Globosus; Geranium; Viola; Tris Silvestris; Narcissus; Pencedanum officinale; Mus latifolium luteum; Canna Sacchari; Asparagus; Fabæ; Brassica; Brassica Botrytis cymosa; Rumex; Brassica rapa; Pastinaca; Triticum frumentum; Hordeum; Avena; Smilax salsaparilla; Lichen Ruccella; Ceratonia Siliqua; Xilum aut Gossipium; Helleborus; Marrubium; Triticum repens, gramen; Lepas Balanoides; Anchusa; Saxifraga; Ficus sativa aut communis.

The most curious Plants of Malta are:—

Conyza Melitensis.—Retusis foliis surculis pullulat pluribus pedalibus rectis ramosis a duriore pilo subasperis, *foliis* pariter hirsutis, inordinate *caulem* ambientibus, oblongis, indi-

visis hyssopi aut oleæ foliis non dissimilibus, atque per extremum retusis. *Flores* huic radiati, in cacumine caulium auri luteo colore splendentes quibus flaccellentibus succedunt semina quæ conyzarum more in *pappos* solvuntur. Gignitur inter difficultates et autives ascensus saxorum et cautium Melitæ insulæ sub patrum Capucinorum cœnobio.*

Jacea Melitensis capitalis conglobatis.—Pedales sunt alati, ramosi, geniculati; *folia* augusta, jaceæ vulgaris foliis molliora, leviter sinnata et incana; *flores* ad genicula ab imo ad summum caulium plures, sublutei e capitulis nonnihil spinosis, atque cum rotundi globuli forma simul commissis exeuntes. Inveni Melitæ in via quæ casalnovum ducit. Lutetiæ etiam nascitur, sed capitulis minus compactis.†

Limonium.—Reticulatum supinum.‡

Cynomorium aut Fungus Melitensis. Est plantæ secundariæ aut parasiticæ genus, quod aliarum stirpium radicibus; in nascitur et aliter ut anblatum, clandestina hypopitys, orobranche, et similia, initio squamis densissimis; tectum, postea dum incrementum acquirit, et ad magnitudinem suam pervenit, squammarum agmina inter se paulatim dilatantur; foliolis; infra squammarum spatium creberrime vestitum; inter quas emergunt flores monopetali, anomali, vomeris aut cunei turbinati forma ex una parte cavi; altera vero convexi; stamine crassiori; apice biventri; instructi, sed steriles et calyce carentes. Embryo vero ab eisdem floribus vix sejunctus; tuba; donatus et foliis planta tanquam calyci obvolutus; abiitque deinde in subrotundum semen.§

The *Fungus Melitensis* and the Corallina are used as medicaments; and the latter is a popular and efficacious remedy for worms. Dr. Hennen says, that the Fungus Melitensis is now fallen into disrepute. It abounds on a rock on the coast

* See Boccone, page 26 and 27; the fig., table 13.

† Ibid. page 65.

‡ Ibid., fig. page 83.

§ See Michelio (Petro Antonio), Nova Plantarum Genera juxta Tournefortii Methodum disposita. Florence, 1728, folio.

of Gozo, and on the neighbouring cliffs; and formerly the exclusive property of the Grand Master, who sent it in presents to foreign princes, and distributed it to the great hospital, to the knights and inhabitants, as a sovereign remedy in almost all diseases, but especially in those requiring a powerful astringent.

Corallina Officinalis of Linnæus is described as follows by Staff-Surgeon Tully:—it is apparently of a fungous texture; its colour, when fresh, is a pale red, but when dried, becomes much darker. The smell strongly resembles that of the common sea-weed; it is composed of many tenacious fibres springing from one common base, and so intermixed with each other as to form compact bunches; when immersed for a short time in water, the different fibres are distended and separated from each other—when taken in any quantity in its fresh state, it is apt to excite nausea; it is gritty, and when chewed, gives out rather a nauseous taste. It is found among the rocks on the sea-shore of Malta and Gozo, on the shores of the Ionian Islands, and many other parts of the Mediterranean. Ellis and other naturalists have clearly proved the Corallina to be the cretaceous habitations of a species of polypi; and Linnæus, who at first classed them among the 'Cryptogamia,' subsequently considered then as Zoophytes, and as such described them in his 'Systema Naturæ.'

In the first volume of Fourcroy's 'Médécine éclairée par les Sciences Physiques,' pp. 85, 86, we fine Bouvier's chemical analysis of the 'Fucus Helminthocorton,' the name given it by Tournefort.

Experiments similar to those of Bouvier's were made by Dr. Dellaporte, of Cephalonia, and the result in both instances was as near as possible the same. According to the analysis of Bouvier, 1000 parts of the fucus yielded—1st. Gelatin, 602; 2nd. Sulphate of lime, 108; 3rd. Woody fibre, 109; 4th. Muriate of soda, 92; 5th. Carbonate of lime, 72; 6th. Phosphate of lime, 2; 7th. Carbonate of magnesia, 5; 8th. Oxide of iron, 5; 9th. Silex, 5.

So far back as 1775, experiments were made in the mili-

tary hospitals of Corsica, to ascertain its efficacy as a vermifuge, and the great success that followed the practice, induced the surgeon of one of the military hospitals of the island, M. Paologreck, and an apothecary of the name of Fleurii, to recommend it to more general notice; the consequence was, that it received many trials in various parts of Europe, and continued for some time to be an acknowledged remedy for worms; however, it soon fell into disuse amongst the profession, but not so amongst the lower classes, who, from the first discovery of its efficacy, have invariably continued its use.

Both in the Ionian Islands and Malta, the Corallina is now almost the only remedy recommended by the native physicians as a vermifuge, and many military surgeons have resorted to it with good effect, these last confining its use chiefly to females and children; for the latter it is found to be a mild and safe remedy, particularly if its use is preceded by a brisk purgative, the mode I have always adopted. For the expulsion of the tape-worm it is of no avail whatever, as I have frequently seen it given for this purpose, without producing the smallest effect.

One of the great advantages of the Corallina is, that it may be administered in any form. In the Ionian Islands it is given in powder mixed with the yolk of an egg, in the quantity of from half a drachm to two drachms to a dose, repeated for several days according to circumstances: this is considered as the most efficacious manner of exhibiting this medicine, although it is frequently prescribed both in infusion and decoction, and as often taken in its natural state, fresh from the rock, as well as with oil in the form of sallad. Independent of all these forms it is frequently used by the Maltese fried with garlic. The doses above-mentioned are the smallest quantities resorted to; the quantity is increased according to age and strength, and many even exceed an ounce and a half without producing any ill effect.

Linnæus, in his 'Amœnitates Academicæ,' notices the fungus 'Melitensis,' and names it *Cynomorium coccineum*. The growth of the fungus is observed to commence about

the middle of December, and in general it is fit for gathering the latter end of April; when fresh, it has somewhat of a scaly appearance, and rises from six to seven and eight inches in height from the stem; the form approaches to the cone, and in substance resembles very much the common mushroom; the colour upon the rock is grey, but changes many shades darker upon being removed and dried; the taste is not only strongly astringent, but also mucilaginous. It is asserted that the fungus, which is allowed to remain upon the rock, regularly runs to seed, producing the following autumn a fresh supply, thus affording annually two complete crops.

The mode of preparing the fungus for medicinal purposes, according to Abela, was as follows:—After being well cleaned and freed from all extraneous substances, a certain quantity was put into an earthen vase, closely covered; the vase was then put into an heated oven, where it was kept until the fungus was supposed to be sufficiently dried for pulverizing, it was then powdered in a marble mortar, and sifted; the powder was infused in old wine and given in this form. The Maltese physicians prescribe it in doses of from half a drachm to a drachm, mixed with honey, in the same diseases for which it was formerly given, and ascribe considerable virtues to it, in cases of menorrhagia.*

Catalogue of plants which, according to Cavallini,† grow in Malta and Gozo:—*Absinthium*, Santonicum. Dod. Gal.; *Acuta*, Spina quorundam. Spina alba vulgo Ang. Oxyacantha Matth. Mespilus sylv. Castor. Sorbus aculeata Cord. hist. *Adianthum*, Album Plin. Cæs. Capillus Veneris verus Ger.

* Dr. Hennen.

† A Maltese physician, very celebrated for his knowledge in botany. His work, entitled 'Pugillus Melitens,' &c. was become extremely scarce. M. Brückman thought it so interesting a performance, that he published it at large (see 'Epistolæ Itinerariæ Centuria Secunda') and dedicated it to Linnæus. He does not explain the abbreviations, which would have been convenient to the general reader, although familiar to the experienced botanist.

Ægilops, 1. Et Avena fatua Tab. festugago Gaz.; *Allium,* Sylv. tenuifolium Lob. Adv. et Ico. Allium in arvis Plinio.; *Alsine* Matth. minor Lob. Adv. et Ico. Hippia minor Cord. Histor.; *Alsine,* Mas. Gesn. hort. Hederulæ folio C. B. P. Elatine Dod. Gal.; *Amaranthus,* Sylv.; *Anagallis,* Terrestris mas. Thal. phœnic. Tab. punicea Ces.; *Anagallis,* Cerulea fem. Clus. Hist.; *Anagallis,* sive Becabunga Ger.; *Anagallis,* Aquatica minor flore pallido, Gersium Ang. Cepea Tur.; *Anchusa,* Puniceis floribus B. Pin. Buglossa rubra Lon.; *Anchusa,* Echii foliis et floribus C. B. Pin.; *Androsaces,* Matth. Musei marini Genus Gril.; *Annemone,* Nemorum alba purpurea coccinea Ger. Ranunculus phragmites Gerhort.; *Anethum,* Sylv. grandius sativo, foliis fœniculi Cæs.; *Antirrhinum,* 1 Matth. Arveux majus B. Pin. Orontium Dod. Gal; *Antirrhinum,* 3 Matth. arvense minus C. B. P.; *Antirrhinum,* Alterum Trag. Pesedec facie; *Anthyllis,* Valentina Clus. hist. Chamæsyce Dalect. Lugd. Peplion sive Peplis Cord.; *Anthriscus,* Plin. Clus. hist. Scandix Cretica minus B. Phyt. et prodr.; *Aparine,* Matth. Philanthropos Plin. B. Pin. descript.; *Aphaca,* Matth. Orobus Sylv. seu Sylv. seu Viscia sylv. major et 2. Trag.; *Apium,* Palustre et Offic. B. Pin. Oleosolinum Tur.; *Arisarum,* Minimum supinum, folio serpentariæ flore albo lucido; *Aristolochia,* Ionga. Dod.; *Artemisia,* Cineria, seu Eruca cinerea Dalescorum Matth. maculatum Tab.; *Arundo,* Matth. Ama Ger.; *Asparagus,* Sylv. Matth. Palatium leporis Cæs.; *Asparagus,* Foliis acutis C. B. Pin. Corneda Dod. Gal.; *Asphodelus,* Matth. Hastula Regia Trag.; *Aster,* Atticus Matth. Tinctorius flos. 1. Trag.; *Aster,* Atticus alter Matth. Lugd.; *Atriplex,* Sylv. 3 Matth. Lugd. Blitum IV. et Solanum IV. Trag.; *Atriplex,* Sylv. 3. Camer. in Matth.; *Atriplex,* Halimoides Lob. Icon; *Atriplex,* Fœtida B. Pin. Vulvaria Cast. Garosinum Cord hist.; *Atriplex,* Marina Matth.; *Avena,* Sterilis Adval. Bromos. sterilis Lob. Icon.; *Auricula,* Muris minima; *Bellis,* Media Matth.; *Bellis,* Minor Matth. Primula veris Bruns. Cæs.; *Borrage,* Sylvestris floribus albis Tab.; *Branca,* Ursina Dod. Gal. Sphondilyum Matth.; *Buglossum,* Vulgare Matth. Crisium Italicum

Fuchs.; *Bursa*, Pastoris Fuchs.; *Brionia*, Alba radice minori, frisan Cretica Ponæ Ital.; *Brionia*, Nigra Ger. Malacocipum Damocrali; *Calamenthum*, Montanum album tenuifolium odoratum; *Calamenthum*, Alterum tenuifolium album graviter olens. Nepeta aliquorum; *Calendula*, Sylv. minor. Cæs. arvensis Tab. Ger.; *Capparis*, Non spinosa Bellon.; *Carduus*, Muricatus Clus. hist.; *Carduus*, Chrysanthemus Dod. Ger. Atractylis marina Lugd.; *Carduus*, Mariæ Trag. et multæ altæ species, quarum notitia in meliori diligentia; *Carthamus*, Syl. Lon. Horacantha Tab. Eyst.; *Ceresolium*, Matth. Gingidium Fuchs.; *Centaureum*, Minus flore rubro Eyst.; *Centaureum*, Luteum alterum Lugd.; *Chamædrys*, Vulgaris mas. Fuchs. Auricula muris 3 Cæs.; *Chamædrys*, Fœm. Fuchs. Teucrium 3. minus Tab.; *Chamæleon*, Niger Cortusi Dod. Crocodilion Tab.; *Chamæleon*, Albus Dioxor. Guill. Spina Arabica Dod. Gall. cujus hic radix maximè venenata; *Chamæmelum*, Fœtidum B. Pin. Cotula alba Dod. Chamomilla offic.; *Chamæmelum*, Non fœtidum Dod. Gal. an Melandrium Plin. Dod. Gal.; *Chamæpytis*, 3. Seu altera Matth. incana exiguo folio B. Plin.; *Chamæpytis*, Moschata, foliis serratis C. B. P. tua moschata. Monsp. Ad. Tab.; *Chamæsyce*, Matth. peplum minum repens.; *Chelidonium*, Majus Ger.; *Chelidonium*, Minus Gesn. hort. Favagello Cæs.; *Chondrilla*, Prior Matth.; *Chondrilla*, Altera Matth. purpurascente . . . Icon.; *Chrysanthemum*, Flore partim candido, partim luteo B. Pin.; *Chrysanthemum*, Majus folso profundius laciniato magno flore C. B. Pin. Creticum 1. Clus. hisp. et hyst. luteum Eyst.; *Chrysanthemum*, 3 Cæs. Bellis lutea foliis subrotundis C. B. Pin.; *Cicorium*, Pratense luteum levius B. Pin. Hedypnois Plinii Dod. Gal.; *Cicorium*, Sylv. fl. luteo, et aliud flore luteo cæruleo C. B. Pin. Descript.; *Cichorium*, Spinosum creticum Belli Ponæ, non alibi quam hic sponte nascens, tamen et in Creta visum, a Pona et Imperato inter Creticas plantas delineatum; *Cicuta*, Major Camer. Cicutoria vulgaris Cluv. histor.; *Cineraria*, Dod. seu Jacobæa maritima Ponæ Lugd.; *Clematis*, Altera Matth. Pothos cæruleus Lugd.; *Convolvulus*, Marinus noster im-

perato. Soldanella vel Brassica maritima major B. Plin. *Conyza*, Minor et Eupatorium. Mesues Col.; *Conyza*, Minima, saxatilis, Camphoræ odore, a me nuspiam quam hic observata, similis Conyzæ montanæ Myconis, nisi quod hanc is hircum graviter aclere asserat, nostra vero Camphoræ acutissimum, nec ingratum odorem spiret; *Conyza*, Marina Balech.; *Corallina*, Alba Lob. Tab. Museus marinus fruticos. Cost. quia nil præstantius ad intestinorum lumbricos; *Coronopus*, Matth. Herba stella Dod.; *Coronopus*, Sylvestris Cæs.; *Cristagalli*, Lob. Mimulus Plinii quibusdam; *Crithinum*, 1. Matth. Batis Gem. hort.; *Crithinum*, Crysanthemum Dod.; *Cucumis*, Agrestis Brunf. e quo hic præstantissimum elaterium parant; *Cupressus*, Sylv. humilis foliis et strobilis minoribus mihi nusquam visa, nec apud Author. observ.; *Cuscula*, Matth. tum Lino tum Squillæ adnascens; *Cyanus*, Segetum C. B. P. Baptiscerula Trag.; *Cyanus*, Spinosus Creticus Ponæ Ital. Stæbe peregrina Clus. histor.; *Cimbalaria*, Lugd. Linaria hederæ folio Col.; *Cynocrambe*, Matth. Mercurialis mascula Sylv. Cord. hist.; *Damasonium*, Sive Alysma Lugd; *Damasonium*, Stellatum Lugd. Plantago aquatica minor altera Lob. Icon.; *Dentellaria*, Rubra Dalech. Lugd.; *Dipsacus*, Sylv. Dod. Carduus fullonius erraticus Trag.; *Ebulus*, Aug.; *Echium*, Lac. Anchusa Sylv. Tab.; *Endiva*, Sylv. Casal. Aphace Dalech Lugd.; *Equisetum*, 1. Matth. Hippium majus Dod. Cauda equina officin.; *Erica*, Juniperifolia densè fruticans Nab. Lab.; *Eruca*, Sylv. Dù.; *Eruca maritima*, Lugd.; *Eryngium*, Marinum Ad. Lob.; *Eryngium*, Montanum pumilum C. B. Pin.; *Erythrodanum*, Marinum Lugd. Cancalis maritima Cæs.; *Ferula*, Matth. femina Plinii C. B. Pin.; *Filix*, Mas. Dod. femina Cæs.; *Flammula*, Matth. Clematitis altera Turn.; *Fœniculum*, Sylvestre B. Pin.; *Fumaria*, Purpurea et alba Ger. fumus terræ Thal.; *Fungi*, Matth. et multa alia genera esui aptissima; *Garderothymum*, Creticum Hon. Belli ep. b. ad Clus. Pon. Ital. Stachys Spinosa Cretica B. Pin.; *Genista*, Dod. Spartium Matth.; *Genista*, Seu Spartium aliud Hispanicum Clus. Lugd.; *Geranium*, Malvaceum sive Balsaminum Cam.; *Geranium*, Ci-

cutæ folio acu longissima B. Prodr.; *Geranium*, 1. Matth. Myrrhida Plinii et nostrum Ciconiæ Ad. Lob.; *Geranium*, Robertianum Ad. Lob. Panox herculeum Aug. et multæ aliæ speciis opportuniores commoditale exarandæ; *Gladiolus*, Gesn. Xiphion Diosc.; *Glastum*, Sive Isatis Syles, Adv.; *Gnaphalium*, Marinum tomentosum Lugd.; *Gnaphalium*, Hortense roseum. Banh. Prodr.; *Gnaphalium*, Chrysanthemum capitulo singulari; *Gramen*, 2 Plinii Aug. Centumgrana Cæs.; *Gramen*, Cruciatum Ægyptium Alpini, nostro idiomate Negèra et Salib. sive stellatum Vesling. eadem enim species est licet paniculatum radiis variegatum ludat, ut modo quatuor, modo pluribus stellam repræsentat; *Gramen*, Alopecurodes, et multa alia genera variæque species, quarum major pars in meo catalogo plantarum medici sapientiæ Romanæ explicato; *Halimus*, Adv. Lob. Portulaca marina Dod. Icon.; *Hedera*, Arborea Lugd.; *Hedisarum*, Majus Lugd.; *Hedisarum*, Alterum Dod.; *Hedisarum*, Minus Tab. ferrum equinum capitatum, sive conosum Col.; *Heliotropium*, Tricoccum Lugd. minus Matth.; *Heliotropium*, Majus Matth.; *Heliotropium*, Supinum Clus. hisp. et hist. minus 1. Tab.; *Heliotropium*, Supinum Clus. Hisp. et hist. minus 1. Tab.; *Heliotropium*, Erectum Ger.; *Hemionitis*, Matth. vulgaris B. Pin.; *Hæmorrhoidalis*, Cast. Chondrilla 2 Cæs.; *Hepatica*, Brunf. Lichen. Dod.; *Herniaria*, Col. Millegrana. Cord. hist.; *Herba*, Turca officin.; *Hieracium*, Majus Matth. Taraxacon majus Lon.; *Hieracium*, Minus Aug. Succisa 3 Trag.; *Hipposelinum*, Lac. Olusatrum Cord. in Diosc.; *Horminum*, Sylv. Matth.; *Horminum*, Sylv. Fuchs.; *Hyacinthus*, Boryoides cæruleus Clus. pan.; *Hyacinthus*, Boirgoides lacteus Clus. pan.; *Hyosciamus*, Niger Dod. Apollinarii Cord. in Diosc.; *Hyosciamus*, Candidus Trag.; *Hyosciamus*, Oreticus luteus minor B. Pin.; *Hypericum*, Syriacum et Alexandr. Lob.; *Hypericum*, Supinum tomentosum majus vel Hispanicum B. Pin.; *Hyssopus*, Sylv. tenuifoliis; *Jacea*, Lutea capitulo spinoso B. Pin. major lutea Adv. Lob.; *Jacea*, Minor; *Jacea*, Humilis lutea hieracii folio capitulis elegantibus; *Iris*, Sylv. major Math. Gladiolus tenellus major Trag.; *Juncus*, Acutus Aug. rotundus alter Cæs.; *Juniperus*, Minor

sterilis; *Kali*, Matth. geniculatum majus B. Pin.; *Kali*, Nodosum, quod coctum in acetariis nostri comedunt et apud nos *Armandia*; *Kali*, Alterum, seu minus Cam. Kali album Dod.; *Kali*, Magnum album Alpini; *Kali*, Fruticosum folio Kali minoris; *Kali*, Spinoso affinis B. Pin. Tragum Matth.; *Lactuca*, Sylv. Fuchs. Scartiola et Serciola Erk. Cord.; *Lampsana*, Matth. rapistrum Brunf.; *Lapathum*, Acutum Lob. Hidrolapanthum magnum Ger. Icon.; *Lapathum*, Rotundum Aug.; *Lens*, Palustris Dod. Gal. Lenticula aquatica Thal.; *Lentiscus*, Matth.; *Leucoium*, Incanum majus B. Pin. album Matth.; *Leucoium*, Rubr. simplici Bry. Eyst.; *Leucoium*, Duplis floribus Adv.; *Leucoium*, Sive Cheyri purpuro violaceum pleno flore Sivert.; *Leucoium*, Purpureum variegatum flore pleno Eyst.; *Leucoium*, Marinum minus Clus. hisp. et hist.; *Limonium*, Parcum Narbonense Lugd.; *Limonium*, Supinum reticulatum haud alibi visum (Vid. Boccone Del.); *Linaria*, Dod. Osyris Matth.; *Linum*, Sylvestræ Matth.; *Lolium*, Album Ger.; *Litopisos*, Sive Hierazuni Candiæ Ponæ an Trifolium corniculatum aliorum; *Lotus*, Sylvestris, forsan Sylv. Dioscoridis a Pona inter creticas plantas delineata; *Lunaria*, Lutea Dalech. Lugd.; *Lunaria*, Minor Cast. Dur. ferrum equinum Matth.; *Lychnis*, Sylv. quæ Behen album vulgo C. B. Ra. Pin. Polemonium Dod.; *Lychnis*, Sylv. Dod.; *Lychnis*, Maritima minima fl. suaverubente et fol. holostr.; *Malva*, Agrestis minor Gesn. Hort.; *Malva*, Flore suaverubente Gesn.; *Marcrubium*, Nigrum Gesn. Hort.; *Marcrubium*, Matth. fem. Brunss. candidum Trag. Prassium Aug.; *Mèdica*, Cass. Icon. Trifolium eochleatum alterum Dod.; *Medica*, Pusilla Camer Trifolium echinatum arvense B. Pin.; *Mentha*, Rubra Brunss. Sisymbrium Sylv. Matth. Lugd.; *Menthastrum*, Lac. Mentha equina Brunss.; *Mercurialis*, Mascula Tur.; *Mercurialis*, Florens Cæs.; *Moly*, Dioscoridis pettatum Adv.; *Muscus*, Arboreus Matth. Quercus Lob; *Muscus*, Repens infectorius e rupibus saxisque crustarum instar enascens colciis varii modo lutei modo crocei purpurei, viridis, nigricans, quo e rupibus abraso, atque in urina macerato ac cocto pannis ac tapetibus xerampelino colore tingendis utuntur; *Muscus*, Terrestris vulgaris Dod.; *Narcis-*

sus, XIII. medio luteus poëticus Tab.; *Nasturtium*, Sylv. Thal. Thlaspi minus Germ. Tab.; *Nasturtium*, Aquaticum supinum B. Pin. Sisymbrium aquat. Matth.; *Nasturtium*, Aquaticum erectum folio longiore P. Pin. Sium. vulgare Matth.; *Nigella*, Sylv. et 2. Trag.; *Oleaster*, Cæs. Olea Sylv. Matth.; *Orchis*, Mas angustifolia Fuchs.; *Orchis*, Angustifolia fem. altera Fuchs. Icon.; *Origanum*, Vulgare Lugd. flore rubente; *Ornithogalum*, Majus Dod. Arabicum Clus. pan. et hist.; *Ornithogalum*, Neapolitanum Clus. flore interius candido et exterius cineraceo Sivert; *Orobanche*, Vera Gesn. Hort. Ama Aug.; *Orobus*, Sylv. angustifolius Asphodeli radice B. Pin.; *Oxalis*, Sylv. minor sive acetosella qualem Alpinus in Zacyntho insula se observ. memorat.; *Panax*, Siculum folio Pastinacæ sativæ Boccon.; *Papaver*, Corniculatum luteum Fuchs.; *Papaver*, Erraticum minus Tab. Argemone Lac.; *Papaver*, Erraticum Lac. Papaver rhæas Lob.; *Parietaria*, Vulgaris et major Trag. Helxine Matth.; *Parietaria*, Minor ocynis folio B. Pin.; *Paronychia*, Altera Matth.; *Pastinaca*, Sylv. latifolia B. Pin.; *Pesteri*, Veneris Matth. Scandix Dod.; *Peplis*, Matth. maritima Thal. obtus. B. Pin.; *Peplis*, Matth. sive Esula rotunda B. Pin.; *Perfoliata*, Matth. Sæseli Æthiopicum Dioscoridis Cæs.; *Persicaria*, Altera Matth. maculis nigris Gesn. Hort.; *Pimpinella*, Sanguisorba major B. Pin. Sideritis 2 Diosc.; *Pimpinella*, Sanguisorba minor Matth.; *Pimpinella*, Agrimonoides odorata Boccon.; *Pimpinella*, Minor odorata; *Phyllitis*, Matth. Lingua cervina officin. B. Pin.; *Plantago*, Et Centinervia Cæsal.; *Plantago*, Minor Fuchs.; *Plantago*, Trinervia fol. angustissimo B. Prodr.; *Plantago*, Aquatica minor. Cæs.; *Plantago*, Marina Dod. Gal. Bibinella Cæs.; *Polemonii*, Altera species Dod. Gal. Valeriano rubra B. Pin.; *Poligonum*, Mar. Matth. Centinodia Brunf.; *Poligonum*, Marinum prius Dalach. Lugd.; *Polipodium*, Quercinum Ger.; *Psyllium*, Matth. Cynops. Theophr. Gesn. Hort.; *Pulegium*, Matth. sem. Fuch. Icon.; *Pulegium*, Cast. mas. Plinii Col.; *Quinquefolium*, Majus repens B. Pin. Pentaphyllon majus Thal. luteum majus Dod. Gal.; *Quinquefolium*, Album minus Banh. Prodr.; *Ranunculus*, Thalyc-

tri folio Clus. Pan.; *Ranunculus,* Arvensis echinatus B. Pin.; *Ranunculus,* Balrachioides Ge.; *Ranunculus,* Palustris apii folio levis B. Pin.; *Ranunculus,* Sardonicus Aug.; *Raphanus,* Rusticanus B. Pin.; *Rapistrum,* Flores albo Erucæ folio Lob. Icon. Lampiana Cæs.; *Rapunculus,* Matth. Rapum Sylv. Gesn. Hort.; *Reseda,* Lutea major arborescens; *Reseda,* Candida major; *Rhamnus,* Matth. spinis oblongis flores candicante B. Pin.; *Rubia,* Major Lob. Adv. Thapsia Asclopiada Aug.; *Rubia,* Sylv. minor Adv. Lob. Lappago Plinii Cæs.; *Rubesta,* Arvensis repens cærulea B. Prodr.; *Rubus,* Matth. Morus sive Rubus aug.; *Ruscus,* Ger. sive Bruscus; *Ruta,* Montana Tab. Sylv. Matth.; *Saturveia,* Lac. Hyssopus agrestis Bruns.; *Scabiosa,* Fuchs. altera campestris; *Sogetum,* Lob. Icon.; *Scariola,* Arabum interpretibus; *Scilla,* Major Cast. Squilla Matth. nihilo hispanica præstantior qua vix alia hic planta copiosius crescit; *Scolymus,* Sylv. Adv. Lob.; *Scordium,* Alterum sive Salvia Sylv. B. Pin.; *Scopicis,* Matth.; *Scopicis,* Altera Dod.; *Scornozera,* Sylv. tenuifolia; *Sedum,* Majus verum Gesn. hort. Sempervivum arborescens Matth.; *Sedum,* Minimum repens vermicularis, an insipida Eyst; *Senecio,* Minus Matth. Erigeron Diosc.; *Serpillum,* Foliis cisti odore B. Pin.; *Sideritis,* Heraclea Dioscoridis Col.; *Sinapi,* Album Lugd. Brassica Sylv. foliis circa radicem Cichoraccis B. Pin.; *Sisyrinchium,* Minus Clus. Hisp.; *Smilax,* Aspera Matth.; *Solanum,* Officinarum B. Pin. Hort. Matth.; *Soldanella,* Gesn. Hort. Brassica marina Matth.; *Sonchus,* Spinosus Aug. Andriolia major Lugd.; *Sonchus,* Levis Matth.; *Staphisagria,* Dod.; *Stœchas,* Cittrina Matth. Ageratum Amelia Dod. Gal.; *Tamariscus,* Lon. Myrica Gesn. Hort.; *Teucrium,* Boëticum Clus. Hisp.; *Thlaspi,* Latifolium Fuchs.; *Thlaspi,* Candiæ Dod.; *Thlaspi,* Bisculatum Erysimi folio; *Thlaspi,* Arinum Dalech; *Thymum,* Creticum legitimum Clus. hisp. et hist. quo nil hic frequentius inde apes præstantissimum mel colligunt; *Tithymalorum,* Varia genera, quorum seriem ponere est multum in longum nos traheret, cum in catalogo nostro omnia legi possunt; *Trifolia,* Pratensia varia quorum flores ludunt sæpe sæpius in coloribus; *Tri-*

folium, Acetosum Matth. Oxys. Tur.; *Trifolium*, Bituminosum angustifolium. Idem rotundifolium; *Triticum*, Vaccinum Lugd. parietaria Sylv. 3. Clus. Pan.; *Typha*, Palustris Cæs. Ulva Aug.; *Typha*, Cerealis Dod. Gal. Frumentum Romanum Trag. Lugd. Triticum Matth.; *Verbascum*, S. Matth. nigrum foliis Papaveris corniculati B. Pin.; *Verbascum*, Salvifolium fruticosum luteo flore Lob.; *Verbenaca*, Matth. Herba sacra Aug.; *Verbena*, Supina Clus. hist. Teucrii folia B. Pin.; *Viola*, Marina repens Eyst. Icon.; *Vitex*, Lac. Agnuscastus Gesn. Hort.; *Umbilicus*, Veneris Matth. Cotyledon major B. Pin.; *Umbilicus*, Veneris alter Matth.; *Umbilicus*, Veneris Lob. Icon. Cotyledon minus Sedi folio. Adv. Lob.; *Volubilis m.*, Minor Thal Helxine cissanpelos Matth.; *Volubilis*, Terrestris Dalech. Lugd. Convolvulus minimus spicæ foliis Ger.; *Volubilis*, Seu convolvulus folio Altheæ Clus. hisp. et hist.; *Urticarum*, Variæ species quarum series in longum protracta in catalogo meo; *Uva*, Marina Dod. Polygonum marinum sive cocciferum Tab.

Demum in domesticis Viridariis præter rosarum omne genus gestarum nihilo suaviorum gariophyllos variosque bulbaceos flores undique exquisitos frequenter sunt Myrtus, Jasminum album, Rosmarinus, Lavendula, Mentha, Saracenica, Ocymi variæ species aliæque plantæ odoratæ in Italiâ familiares.

Ad ornatum autem visumque grato virore recreandum seri frequenter solent Balsamina mas, sive Momordica, Colochyntis Liuaria, Scoparia Italis Belvedere Lithospermum arundinaceum, vulgo Lacryma Jobi, Nerium sive Oleander, Phyllirea, Campanula cærulea, Amaranthus purpureus, Vesicaria repens. Flos Africanus seu Caryophyllus Indicus, Solanum æthale seu somniferum Fuchs, vulgo Belladonna, aliudque Solanum exoticum, quod pomum amoris dicunt.

Sed et aliæ haud paucæ Egyptiæ atque Americanæ plantæ hic pridem translatæ pæne indigni sunt nobis effectu hujusmodi sunt Jasminum Arabicum seu Ægyptium Alpini, nostratibus Hispanicum dictum: Alcæa Ægyptia, semine moschum olente, aliis Bamia moschata, Hedera quinque folia Canadensis, Cyanus Turcicus odoratus, vulgo *Ambrete*, cum albo tum pur-

pureo, Leucoium melancholicum Hesperidum, aliis Jasminum rubrum, Amaranthus ruber cristallis, seu Blitum majus Peruanum Clus. Hist. Amaranthus bacciferus Americanus. Mirabilis Peruana. Acacia vera Ægyptia Alpini et Veslingii. Triticum Indicum. Colocasia quam ut et Alven haud semel florentem vidimus. Canna Indica. Opuntia seu ficus Indica, Pier Indicum multiforme, Nasturtium Peruanum Monardi; hic male flos Granadillæ Passionalis reputatum: Sol Indicus seu herba maxima. Rosa Sinensis ac Malva Japonica, sebesten a translate nuper etiam musam optime jam propagari cernebatur. Viguit quoque haud ita pridem Datura Egyptia seu Nux vomica vera Arabum. Planta vero sensitiva longe melius adolevit, quam in aliis Europæ locis. Superest quoque adhuc et Ricinus Americanus, cujus nuclei sursum deorsumque vehementer expurgant. Atque hæc de plantis quæ in Melita, ejusque districtis observantur, sat dicta sumto.

Catalogue of several Plants which, according to Forskäl, grow in Malta, particularly near the Saltworks, together with the distinguishing Characteristics of the said Plants; published by him under the title of Florula Melitensis:—*

Salicornia, Europæa. ad Salinas; *Salvia,* Verbenac; *Rosmarinus,* Officinalis; *Phalaris,* Canariens. ad Sal.; *Poa,* Filicina; *Panycum,* Dactylon; *Panycum,* Glaucum; *Polycarpon,* Tetraph. in cultis; *Lagurus,* Ovatus. ad Sal.; *Avena,* Fatua; *Hordeum,* Murinum; *Agrostis,* In horto.; *Cynosurus,* Paniceus; *Scabiosa,* Atropurp. hort.; *Crucianella,* Marit.; *Plantago,* Serraria, foliis lanceolato dentatis. ad Sal.; *Plantago,* Coronopus; *Galium,* Aparine. An Valantia? fructu tuberculato. ad Sal.; *Sherardia?* in cultis.;† *Samolus,* Vale-

* This small work makes a part of a more considerable one, published by this learned Dane, entitled 'Flora Ægyptiaco-Arabica, sive descriptiones plantarum quas per Ægyptum inferiorem et Arabiam felicem detexit, illustravit,' &c. printed at Copenhagen, in quarto, 1775, after the author's death, by Carsten Niebuhr. Some of the plants mentioned in this work have been already described by Cavallini, but in so different a manner, as sufficiently justifies their being repeated in this account.

† Siccum specimen intuens, video Sherardiam hanc a charactere generico

randi. ad Sal. et in ruderatis; *Convolvulus*, Arvens; *Eryngium*, Albo villosum; *Chenopodium*, Fruticos, facie Sals. vormic. ad Sal.; *Chrithmum*, Marit. ad Sal.; *Solanum*, Lycopers. in hortis cult.; *Hyosciamus*, Aureus. ad vias.; *Cressa*, Cretica; *Daucus*, Carota; *Hedera*, Helix.; *Beta*, Vulg. capsula multi ansata; *Frankenia*, Pulverul. in ruderat.; *Allium*, Ad margines agrorum.; *Arenaria*, Peploides; *Oxalis*, Cornic. in cultis.; *Reseda*, Alba; tetragyna. in ruder.; *Reseda*, Undata; Calycis dente supremo non minore. Spontanea in horto D. Locano; *Punica*, Granat. hortens.; *Mesembr.* Nodifl. ad Sal.; *Chelidonium*, Glaucum; *Capsaris*, Spinosa; *Papaver*, Hybr. in arvis; *Papaver*, Capsulis globosis, hispidis; *Delphinium*, Elatum; *Thymus*, Serpyllum; *Thymus*, Zygis; *Mentha*, Arvens.; *Mentha*, Exigua. ad Sal.; *Mentha*, Puleg. culta; incolis vocata. Poleg.; *Satureia*, Hortens. incolis. Sariette; *Antirrhinum*, Majus; *Antirrhinum*, Orontium; floribus ecalcaratis, foliis oppositis; *Lepidium*, Sativ. in hortis.; *Alyssum*, Alyssoid. staminib. non dentatis. ad vias.; *Malva*, Sylvestr.; *Alcea*, Rosea; hortens.; *Trifolium*, Stellatum; *Hedisarum*, Onobr.; *Tragopogon*, Picroid. foliis lanceolato hastatis, dentatis; *Scorzonera*, Picroid.; *Soncus*, Olerac. ad Sal.; *Hyoseris*, Cretica; *Hypochœris*, Urens; ad vias.; *Cichorium*, Spinos. ad Sal. Usus ad purganda et læviganda navigia et scaphas; *Carduus*, Lancelat. ad Sal.; *Carduus*, Syriacus: foliis sessilibus amplex.; *Carduus*, Cyanoides; an Cynara? Incolis artichots sauvages, capitulo grandi cæruleo; cæterum similis Cnico dentato; *Senecio*, Vulg. ad vias.; *Senecio*, Jacobæa ad Sal.; *Senecio*, Incan. ad muros et in rupibus; *Chrysanthemum*, Segetum; ubique frequens.; *Achyllea*, Odorata. ad Sal.; *Buphtalmum*, Spinos.; *Buphtalmum*, Melitense; *Centaurea*, Galact.; *Centaurea*, Calcitr.; *Centaurea*, Melitense; *Centaurea*, Solstit. ad vias.; *Centaurea*, Moschata. culta. fasciculatim (bouguettes) venditur; *Pieris*,

discrepantem; genus tamen determinare jam nequeo. Caulis dichotomus pilosus. Folia ad dichotomias bina, opposita tridentata. Flores subsessiles, solitarii in dichotom. Calyx quinquefidus, ciliatus, magnus, persistens. Corolla tubulosa, elata, basi angusto filiformis.

Echioides. ad Sal.; *Othonna*, Cineraria; *Arum*, Colocasia; *Urtica*, Pilulifera; *Zannichellia*, Flor. umbellatis. ad Sal.; *Ceratonia*, Siliqua; *Valantia*, Fructu globoso lacunoso; *Adianthum*, Capill. ven. frequens ad aquæduct; *Obscura*, Articulata, aquisetiformis, foliis fasciculato verticillatis. Sicca fragilissima, intense viridis. ad Salinis in fonte aquædulcis.

Animal Kingdom.—There cannot be expected much variety under this head; all the domesticated animals thrive in Malta, and the mules and asses in particular are remarkable for their strength and beauty. The Maltese dog, formerly so much celebrated, is now, I believe, extinct. The goats are of a very fine breed, but the horned cattle are small, and principally imported from Sicily, Barbary, and the adjacent coasts. Snakes are to be found, but they are not poisonous. Birds of various kinds migrate to the island at different periods, and the hawks of Malta were formerly much celebrated; the bees were also renowned, and indeed continue to yield such excellent aromatic honey, that it is conjectured the island was thence called '*Melita*' by the Greeks. Mosquitoes and other insects abound. Among the different species of caterpillar found at Malta, there is one of a very singular conformation, having no feet. The Chevalier Godheu de Riville, who calls it '*Chenille mineuse des feuilles de vigne*' (the caterpillar which *mines* or cuts the leaves of the vine), has given its history with the greatest care. He has described with the most accurate minuteness the structure of its body, the manner in which it forms its pod or cone, the means it employs for progressive motion and the removal of its habitation, and the different metamorphoses it undergoes.* The skin of this caterpillar is perforated by an infinity of small holes almost invisible. Several extremely fine hairs grow irregularly on different parts of the body. The head, which

* See 'Mémoires de Mathématiques et de Physiques, presentés à l'Academie Royale de Sciences:' Paris, 4to. 1750, tom. i. page 177—190. 'Histoire d'une Chenille mineuse des Feuilles de Vigne: extraite d'une lettre de Malthe à M. de Reaumur, par M. Godheu de Riville, Chev. de Malthe.

is scaly, as well as the upper and under part of the first ring (the rest being membranous), has more of these hairs than the other parts. The head is sometimes concealed under the first ring, which, like all the rest, is not perfectly cylindrical. It is formed, like that of other caterpillars, of two scaly parts; except, however, that these two parts are more sloped behind than before. The vacant spaces are filled by two membranes, which are more transparent than the scaly parts. The head has in front two small teeth with which these caterpillars work, or dissect the leaves by gradually detaching from them the parenchyma. They work first lengthwise, and afterwards breadthwise. It is to be remarked, that every place eaten away has, near the part where the insect has last been, an oval perforation of a middling size. The two membranes between which this aperture is formed are separated, and appear as if a piece had been taken out by a pair of nippers, which piece serves to form the pod or cone of the caterpillar. These pods are ovals; they adhere to the leaf by one of their extremities, and are always perpendicular to the plane on which they are fixed. The following is the manner in which they are constructed.

When a caterpillar of this kind has attained its full size, a stripe of a very beautiful green appears through the whole length of its body, which is occasioned by the quantity of nourishment it then takes, like all other caterpillars. Soon afterwards it prepares to make a lodgment in which it may undergo its transformation. This it usually forms in the place where it has last worked, the other extremity being filled with excrements. When it works only for food, it forms no kind of ridge in the epidermes between which it is lodged: it is, however, sufficiently closed in; since, wherever it is, a small elevation formed by the thickness of its body may be distinguished, which varies as it changes its place; apparently because this caterpillar being destitute of feet, the friction of the rings against the membranes is advantageous to it for its removal from place to place, and its progress in proportion as

it consumes the parenchyma. It is, however, able to form itself a more commodious lodgment in which to pass the time that it remains in the chrysalis state. This it constructs by forming on the two epidermes two ridges, precisely opposite to each other, and which extend the whole length of the oval. By this means the two membranes assume a concavity which renders the habitation more spacious.

The caterpillar proceeds in this operation in the following manner. It begins by tracing on the membrane which is on the side of its implement or apparatus for spinning, the circuit of its new habitation, with several threads which determine the size of the oval. This first work being finished, it applies itself to form the ridge of the same membrane; which, however, it only sketches in the rough. It afterwards proceeds to the other membrane, and changes its position; because, having its spinning apparatus in the same place where it is in all other caterpillars, it cannot, consequently, spin on the membrane opposite to that on which it began, without turning itself entirely round. This it easily does when it is able, by turning its head to sieze with its teeth the membrane behind it; for it thus has a point of support by the aid of which it can turn its rings one after the other, till it has entirely changed its position. It thus performs the same operation as on the first ridge. After having three or four times changed its work from one to the other membrane, the ridges are completely finished. By their formation these membranes become more and more opaque; and the oval which is to form the contour of the pod or cone is easily distinguishable. The convexity which the two membranes assume in this place occasions a very sensible contraction in the neighbouring parts. To separate the pod from the rest of the leaf, the caterpillar begins by extending itself along the two ridges, in such a manner that its body, to use the expression, may measure the length of the oval. It afterwards labours to make its cup, which it executes at different times; for as soon as a quarter of the pod is separated from the rest of the leaf, it

immediately joins the two membranes with its silk, but without giving them their full degree of solidity, which they do not receive till the habitation is completely fixed.

As soon as the pod is separated by incision from the remainder of the leaf, it remains suspended by two threads, of which one of the ends is fastened to the leaf and the other to the edges of the pod. In this position, the caterpillar prepares to quit a place where it has no longer any thing to do; for which purpose, as it has no feet, it has recourse to a singular expedient by the aid of which it can make a progressive motion in all positions, and even over the smoothest and most polished bodies. It advances its body out of its pod, forms a kind of hillock of silk, and, by means of a thread which it attaches to it, draws its pod to the hillock. It continually repeats the same operation, and in this manner advances progressively. The traces of its progress are marked by hillocks of silk at the distance of half a line from each other. If it finds itself suspended by a thread and wishes to ascend it, it thrusts its head out of its pod, and seizes with its teeth the thread which supports it. It lengthens itself till the first three rings are discernible, and then forces the edge of the pod to approach the place where it has fixed its teeth, by the contraction of its body. As it has no feet, its pod is absolutely necessary to enable it to ascend the thread; therefore, when it is deprived of it, and is thus suspended, it continually spins till it reaches a substance capable of supporting it. When it is taken out of its habitation, it never attempts to make a new one. It writhes about very much, but can make no progressive motion; and after having overspread the place in which it is with threads of silk, in an irregular manner, it dies at the end of 24 hours.

It has for its enemy a kind of small worm of a reddish colour, which is almost imperceptible to the naked eye: it is transformed into a nymph of a colour approaching to yellow, and at length changes into a handsome ichneumon, the body of which is of a very fine red, spotted with yellow.

The mining caterpillar, in its chrysalis state, is at first of

an amber colour. Afterwards, six legs are distinguishable, and the cases of the wings, which do not project forward, as in other aureliæ. They are as long as the rest of the body, and are applied to it nearly like the wings of a bird; so that the two extremities of the body, and the cases of the wings, form, in the posterior part of the chrysalis, an angle easily perceivable. The aureliæ lose their amber colour, and become black and white, and at length disclose papilios of the third class of phalænæ and of the genus of those whose wings embrace the body in the manner of birds, whose fringed ends form, by rising up, the resemblance of the tail of a cock. These papilios are very handsome; the legs, head, and body, are silvery; the wings are of a beautiful black, but ornamented with four triangular silver spots, two of which are on the inner, and two on the outer, side. They are extremely lively and brisk from four o'clock in the afternoon till sun-set, and they usually live three days.'

Fish of various kinds are plentiful.—The dory, rock-cod, and a species of whiting, popularly called the 'lupo,' are excellent. The cray-fish also, found on the rocks in the Island of Gozo, are enormous in size, and of very fine flavour. One of the most remarkable fish is the 'pholis dactylus,' which abounds in the harbour, forming for itself a complete 'habitat' in the soft rock, which is perforated as regularly by these creatures as if the perforation had been effected with an auger, while they approach each other so closely and so regularly, that several portions of the rock appear like the wood-work of a cartridge box.

Catalogue of the different kinds of fish on the coast of Malta, according to a learned physician of that island:—*

Delphinus,† *Orca*,‡ I Delfin.;§ *Delphis.*

* See 'Descriptiones Animalium, &c. quæ in Itinere Orientali observavit Petrus Forskäl,' page 17 and 19; one volume in quarto, printed at Copenhagen, with plates, 1775.

† Generic names.

‡ Species.

§ Maltese names.

RAJA, *Altavela*, Il Hamiema.; *Torpedo; Pastinaca*; *Aquila*, Il Hamiema; *Batis*, Il Raja; *Musmarinus (piscis novus).*

SQUALUS, *Pristis*, Il Sia; *Catulus*, Il Rusetta; *Spinax*, Il Chelp. il Bahar. est Arab. Kelh el bahr; *Zygana*, Il Martel; *Squatina; Lamia*, Il Gabdol; *Centrina.*

ACIPENSER, *Sturio; Huso.*

PETROMYZON, *Lampetra; Mustela;* Il Mustilla.

LOPHIUS, *Piscatorius.*

OSTRACION, *Gibbosus; Lagocephalus; Hystrix*, Il Rizza; *Capite testudineo; Mola*, Il Kamar.

GASTEROSTEUS, *Aculeatus; Pugnitius; Spinachia*, l'Ispnotta.

BALISTES, *Scopax.*

CHÆTODON, *Paru; Vetula*, Il Hogiusa.

ZEUS, *Aper*; *Gallus*, I Serduk; *Faber*, l'Aurata.

COTTUS, *Scorpius*, I Scorfua; *Dracunculus.*

TRIGIA, *Milvus*, Il Taira; *Lucerna*, I Tigiega; *Gurnardus; Lyra*, Il Triglia; *Cuculus.*

MULLUS, *Surmuletus.*

SCORPÆNA, I Ceppulazza; *Scorpius*, Il Mazzun.

TRACHINUS, *Draco*, Il Majuro ta rocca.

PERCA, *Lucioperca; Asper; Cernua*, I Cerna; *Lahrax.*

SCIÆNA, *Umbra; Umbrina.*

SPARUS, *Auratus*, L'Aurada; *Cantharus; Crythinus*, Il Pagella; *Pagrus*, Il Pagru; *Dentex*, I Dentici; *Boops; Mænas*, Il Minnula; *Smaris; Sparus*, I Spargu; *Melanurus*; *Salpa*, I Scilpa.

LABRUS, *Turdus, vulg.*; *Turdus virid. minor; Pavo; Scarus cretic.; Julis*, Il Harusa; Arab. Arusa; *Sachettus*; *Scarius varius*, Il Bricchese.

MUGIL, *Cephalus*, Il Caplar.

SCOMBER, *Thynnus*, Itton.; *Scombrus; Trachurus*, Savrella; *Amia; Glaucus.*

XIPHIAS, *Gladius*, Il Pisci spat.

GOBIUS, *Niger; Paganellus; Aphya; Jozo.*

BLENNIUS, *Alauda; Galerita; Gunellus; Galea; Mustela; Pentadactylus.*

OPHIDION, *Gryllus.*

MURÆNA, *Anguilla,* Il Sallura; *Myrus; Serpens marinus,* Il Serpt. al bahar; *Conger,* L'Imsella; *Serpens maculatus,* Il Murina.

GADUS, *Asellus varius,* L'Asnelli; *Æglefinus; Barbatus; Merluccius; Asellus virescens; Asellus mollis,* Il Munckaro.

ANARHICHAS, *Lupus marinus.*

AMMODYTES, *Tobianus.*

CORYPHÆNA, *Hippurus,* I Lampuca; *Novacula,* Il Janfru; *Pompilus,* I Stellara.

PLEURONECTES, *Limanda; Hippoglossus; Linguatula,* Il Linguada; *Rhombus; Psetta.*

ECHENEIS, *Remora.*

ESOX, *Lucius,* I Trigle; *Bellone; Acus.*

OSMERUS, *Eperlanus; Saurus.*

CLUPEA, *Alosa; Encrasicolus,* Il Sardella.

FORM OF GOVERNMENT.—Malta is at present ruled by a Military Governor, appointed by the Crown, and a council has this year been added, the constitution of which is seven members, four of which must hold offices within the island, namely, the senior officer in command for the time being (not in the administration of the Government); the Chief Justice; the Archbishop; and the Chief Secretary to Government. The three unofficial members of the council are to be selected by the Governor; two from out of the chief landed proprietors and merchants, being His Majesty's native (Maltese) born subjects; and the 3rd. from among the principal merchants of the island, being a British born subject, and who shall have actually resided in the island for a period of not less than two years. It is but just for me to state, that the Maltese (and also several British merchants) are dissatisfied with the constitution of this Council; they pray for the reconstruction of their popular assembly, which they had re-organized as soon as they had shut up the French in Valetta, and assert, with justice, that they have been more despotically treated by Great Britain (who, be it remembered, did not conquer them),

than by any other Government under whose dominion the island has been, in proof of which they cite the following—

Extracts from some Privileges granted to the People of Malta and Gozo, by their Sovereigns, Suzerains.

1. King Louis, by his diploma of the 7th Oct. 1350, united perpetually these islands to the Royal dominions of Sicily, taking them under his special protection, declaring himself their Lord Suzerain; and that their inhabitants should enjoy all the privileges which were enjoyed by the other cities of the kingdom; and by a solemn act, declared and stipulated that the islands should not be ceded to any one whatever in feud, barony, or by other title.

2. King Martin and Queen Mary renewed and confirmed the act of King Louis, on the 27 Nov. 1397, at Catania, giving to the Maltese and Gozitans full power to oppose by force any cession or separation of these islands from their union with Sicily. 'Manu forti, pro quo in nullum crimen, delictum vel inobedientiam incurrere reputentur, et aliquatenus censeantur,' &c.

3. At the instance of the noble Giovanni Vaccaro, ambassador of the Università of Malta and Gozo, the Viceroy of Sicily granted the following concessions and privileges, dated the 6th April, 1419, viz.

That the Università shall build a tower in the Island of Comino,—That for the expense of the building, and maintenance of the garrison, the Universtà shall lay a duty or contribution of one florin on every cask of wine imported into the islands from Sicily, as well as other parts; but that afterwards the duty shall be diminished to the annual sum necessary only to maintain the garrison.

That the Castellano, or Governor of the said fort, shall always be a Maltese, but shall be elected by the King, to hold the office during pleasure only.

4. King Alphonsus, on the 20th June, 1428, issued a diploma from Valenza, confirming the union of Malta and Gozo to the Royal dominions; and in recompense of the fidelity

to the crown, shown by the Maltese by the payment of 30,000 florins of gold to purchase their own government from the noble Gonsalvo de Monroy, he declared himself again their protector Suzerain; and that the islands of Malta and Gozo should be considered as a part of the royal dominions, and as such enjoy all the privileges of his own subjects, reserving to them the whole internal government, civil and criminal.

5. There were other concessions of King Alphonsus, dated 20 March, 1429, at the requisition of the noble Francesco Gatto, and Simone Mazara, ambassadors of the Università, viz.

That all officers of the island be Maltese.

That no fiscal or commissary of any kind could be sent from Sicily.

That the Maltese be exempt from the payment of the duty called mezza tratta, and of the customs in all the kingdom of Sicily.

That the office of Secretia of Malta (collectorship of the the revenue of Government property), be wholly independent of the Maestro Secreto of Sicily.

That the Maltese be exempt from all imposts or taxes, or collections whatever ordered in the kingdom of Sicily, though the case should be most urgent.

6. The same King Alphonsus, the 16 April, 1431, exempted the Maltese from all duties in Sicily.

7. Other concessions from the same sovereign in that year to the aforenamed Francesco Gatto—

Confirmed the privilege of aggregation of the islands to the Royal domains by King Martin; and that the exemptions from duty, toll, or impost, shall be observed.

That the office of Capitano of the city shall be annual.

8. The Viceroy of Sicily, at the solicitation of the noble Nicola la Rocca, Ambassador from the Università of Malta and Gozo, granted the following favours the 24th March, 1438, viz.

That annual officers be elected, as heretofore, and not otherwise, solely by scrutinio, by a majority of votes of the citizens.

That the jurats and other officers pro tempore, may with impunity resist and deny execution on any royal rescript, grant, or provision, if it be contrary to the privileges of the island; but in the time of four months they are to represent and to consult his royal Majesty or the Viceroy.

That the Castellano of the maritime castle can have no jurisdiction, or any interference whatever, with the jurisdiction of the officers and ministers of the city and the Università.

9. The same King Alphonsus, by his letter dated the 6th June, 1441, thanks the Maltese and Gozitans for their donation of 60 ounces of gold (a considerable sum at that time), and confirms again all the privileges and grants of 1428, and every other.

10. At the intercession of the noble Stefano Serrera, Ambassador, the 9th June, 1450, the following was granted:—

That the Università might import from Sicily all kinds of provisions for the subsistance of the two islands, without paying any duty.

That the chief of the city (the Capitano), should not enter the council whenever it treated of affairs in which he has any concern.

11. On the application of the noble P. G. de Mazara and Ant. Falzon, Ambassadors, King Alphonsus, the 22d Feb. 1458, granted,—

That the Castellano (the King's officer) has no jurisdiction out of the ancient limits, say Castel St. Angelo, under penalty of 1,000 florins.

That the Jurats and the Capitano of the city shall be obliged to execute and obey all the resolutions of the deliberations of the council.

That no office conferred by scrutinio can be held again until after two years, and not till after one year any other office, that there may be time to examine into their past conduct.

12. On the application of the noble Giovanni de Mazara, Ambassador, King John issued a diploma, dated from Barcelona, 3nd Jan. 1460, that all privileges granted and established by his sovereign predecessors were by him confirmed.

13. Also, on the 17th Jan. 1466, on the application of the said Mazara,—

That no one can have two incompatible offices.

That in Malta there shall be no other principal royal office than that of captain of the city, in whom shall be united the office of captain of arms.

That notwithstanding all royal prohibitions to export provisions from Sicily, the Università may for its use and need export them from any port or landing-place in the whole kingdom.

14. A letter of the Viceroy, dated 22nd March, 1475. That the Jurats have the right to put their accounts and the deliberations of the Council into execution, and punish delinquents.

15. Other favours, ceded by the Viceroy of Sicily, at the solicitation of the noble Giovanni di Mazara, the 6th July, 1475.

The Ambassador demanded and obtained the recal of a Governor who had been appointed over Malta and Gozo, as contrary to the privilege of King Alphonsus in 1428; and a solemn promise was made never to send another governor, or anywise to act contrary to the tenor of the privileges granted by the sovereigns of Sicily, or the natural rights of the Maltese.

That the offices of the Università ought to be conferred in the usual forms by scrutinio, and by a majority of votes.

16. That the Jurats and the Università, or Council, shall be maintained in their right of electing procurators of the cathedral church, and examining accounts, with the admission of the bishop or his vicarius, according to most ancient custom and usage.

That the council of the city ought to elect a sindacus for the causes moved, or to be moved, between the Università and the bishop.

17. Diploma of King Ferdinand, dated from Ocana, 26th December, 1499, by which he confirms all privileges, liberties, immunities, customs, and moral usages, of the Maltese people.

18. Other grants by King Ferdinand, dated Naples, 22 May, 1507, at the prayer of the ambassador, the noble Manfredo Caxaro, viz.

That in all the kingdom the privilege shall be observed, which exempts the Maltese from all duties.

That in Sicily corn should be sold to the Maltese at the same price at which it was current on the day their vessels arrived to purchase and load corn.

19. Grant of King Ferdinand, 3rd August, 1514, by the intercession of the noble Pietro Caruanâ, ambassador of the Universitâ :—

That no Capitan d'armi, or other officer, shall be suffered to make proclamations, or insinuate any thing contrary to the privileges of the city.

That in all Sicily the privileges of exemption from duty of the Maltese shall be punctually observed.

20. Diploma of Queen Joan, and Charles, her son, 22nd Sept. 1516, confirming all privileges, jurisdictions, usages, and moral customs and stipulations, ceded and agreed to by all the preceding sovereigns.*

The Maltese appear to have constantly enjoyed the blessings of a free constitution, except at intervals, when they were under a foreign yoke; and even then they unceasingly struggled to break their chains.

The Consiglio Popolare is stated to have been a permanent representation of the whole people. Its existence and its functions acknowledged, authorized, and confirmed by all their Suzerains. In the Consiglio Popolare resided the whole legislative authority.

It not only nominated the members of the executive government for the management of ordinary affairs; but it watched their conduct, and retained the power of controlling and displacing them.

* There are many more diplomas, grants, privileges, provisions, letters, &c. respecting these matters; but the above are sufficient to show the liberties and franchises enjoyed by the Maltese in ancient times.

The appointment of the principal officer of government, the Capitano di Verga, received the sanction of the Suzerain. The powers of this officer have varied at different periods; but they were always defined, and always limited. Sometimes he has been nominated solely by the Suzerain; sometimes by the Maltese; but generally they submitted to his choice the names of three persons, and this seems to have been the more general and constitutional practice.

All important matters were decided by the Popular Council. The jurats, as the administrators of public property, were dependent on it, and nominated by it. It took care of the commercial interest of the Università, and superintended its operations; and for this effect, whenever it became necessary, it nominated procurators, syndics, &c.

It appointed ambassadors to sovereigns to negociate on public affairs, and to their Suzerains, to ask favours or complain of violation of privileges, either by themselves or their officers, it being the particular duty of the council to defend rights and privileges.

This council deputed of its own body a certain number of persons of probity, of the first and second classes (of which the Consiglio Popolare was always composed), to form a Consiglio Particolare, which annually elected by scrutinio the new public officers, or ministers; the election of whom belonged to the citizens, agreeably to their most ancient privileges. The scrutinio means a court that is held annually on the 27th of September, to appoint proper persons to hold offices. The appointment of all public affairs was only for one year, when others were appointed to their places.

It seems that the Consiglio Popolare sometimes deputed the Università (or jurats) to elect the judges, &c. by scrutinio, and this body then composed the Consiglio Particolare, or exercised its functions.

No new duty or tax could be collected without the consent and order of the Consiglio Popolare; and it seems that the consent of the Suzerain, who protected the people individually as well as collectively, was also necessary, at least to taxes of importance.

With respect to the persons who composed the Consiglio Popolare, it appears by ancient records, that before the coming of the Order of St. John, and many years afterwards, this body was composed of a certain number of persons of families of the first and second classes, and the representatives of towns (casals) elected by the people, who were called constables (contestabili). The jurats, and all other officers of popular election, had a seat in the Consiglio Popolare on general affairs.

Strangers domiciliated five years, and married to Maltese women, were admitted members of the council, by an act of the council itself.

All officers of the island were Maltese.

The Capitano di Verga (who was the royal officer in the island), was prohibited to enter the Consiglio Popolare, whenever he might have any interest in the business to be treated of.

If this Capitano, or the principal magistrate, abused the powers committed to him, the Consiglio Popolare had a right to complain to the Suzerain, and demand his removal from office, &c.

The Castellano, or governor of the marine castle, had no interference in the affairs of the Università, or the city, nor any jurisdiction beyond the ditches of the fort.

Whenever the members of the Consiglio Popolare differed considerably among themselves on important points, such as internal regulations, they sent ambassadors to the king, or viceroy, to represent the different opinions, which he decided by a diploma, grant, &c.

The Consiglio Popolare was by the Sicilians, and by the Maltese themselves, frequently called the Council of the City (Città Vecchia, Medina or Notabile), by excellence called the City.

Gozo was governed in every respect the same as Malta. It had its own Consiglio Popolare, and every other officer, similar to those in Malta.*

* In 1644, in the time of the Order of St. John, a general council of the

Mr. Mitrovich, a Maltese gentleman enjoying the confidence of his countrymen, now in London, informs me, and his statements are borne out by public documents, that on the breaking out of the insurrection against the French republicans in September 1798, the first measure of the Maltese was to re-establish this council (which had been despotically suspended by the latter grand masters of the order of St. John of Jerusalem), to which they then gave the name of congress. This congress was composed of representatives of the clergy and of the people of the whole country freely elected, and had appointed as president Sir Alexander John Ball, then commanding his Majesty's forces in the blockade of Valetta.

When the British troops took possession of the fortifications in September 1800, the congress was suspended by Sir A. Ball, the very man who had stipulated with the Maltese and promised its preservation; he established a system of government entirely arbitrary and despotic, contrary to the expectations of the Maltese; and instead of allowing them to be governed by their ancient laws, conformably to the spirit of the British constitution, he adopted the detested code of Rohan, which had already destroyed some of their privileges, and which code is in force in the island to this day.

In 1813, Sir Thomas Maitland arrived in Malta as governor, when the last deadly blow was given to the remaining national institutions of the Maltese. Their magistrates, under the name of Giurati, formed a highly respectable board, which had existed for many centuries, and was respected even by the despotic grand masters, as well as by the French themselves; but in 1818 their office was totally abolished, so as to leave no trace whatever of a representative body in the island of Malta! Respectable and meritorious Maltese have, it is alleged, been dismissed from their

heads of families was convened in Gozo, to lay a contribution for the building a new city, which being refused by the people, the project did not take place, as appears by the register of the Order, the 7th May, 1644.

situations for no other reason than to make room for Englishmen. The salaries of the heads of several families were given to a few individuals newly arrived in the island, whose merits were totally unknown to the natives. The Maltese occupied formerly all the principal situations in the island, including that of governor of Gozo, with the exception of the posts of public secretary and treasurer; but at this period they were removed, humiliated in their own country by their protectors, and lowered to the rank of inferior officers. The island has been loaded with insupportable burdens; high duties have been established, and pensions assigned on the revenue to individuals not Maltese, and not resident in the island. Restrictions on the trade, quarantine dues, and charges have been established, and no trace of a free port is any longer left; excessive expenses in the numerous tribunals; confusion in the laws by continual alterations, and by frequent contradictory proclamations, have succeeded. The university, anciently endowed with sufficient funds for its support, has been rendered mercenary by imposing on the students a monthly tax, while the revenue has been engrossed by the government. Sir Thomas Maitland was the governor, the legislator, and the judge, and stood, a military man, omnipotent in the island. By a single stroke of his pen, numbers of individuals were reduced to misery and starvation. Even the brown barley bread, the only food of the poor, was highly taxed, to upwards of 100 per cent.

The Maltese, deprived of the blessings of a free press, notwithstanding their repeated supplications for the privilege, had no means of making known their grievances to the British nation, from their own country; while the press being monopolized by the local government, the progress of intellect is checked, and the natives are deprived of the benefit of so profitable a branch of employment. The Maltese, governed as they are by a liberal nation, jealous of the liberty of the press, cannot but feel strongly at being totally deprived of so great a privilege.

Even their humble petitions encountered the greatest difficulties from the local authorities at Malta; so as almost

to impede the voice of the faithful Maltese subjects in reaching the British throne; and, after a petition to the King had been signed by almost all the nobility of the island, and other respectable inhabitants, they were designated by the ruler, a despotic military man, in a printed publication stuck up in all public places, as weak, inconsiderate, turbulent, and factious, and some of the subscribers have been deprived of their situations to the present day.

At the present moment, when the Maltese are much impoverished, and a great number of them are obliged to quit their country to seek a livelihood elsewhere, they are compelled to pay an excessive duty on wheat, which on many occasions amounted to from 50 to 60 per cent., according to the quality, or to the rise and fall in its price.

These alleged grievances require investigation; they have continued for 35 years, during which period the Maltese say that they have addressed the Crown and the Colonial Office in vain;—they have sent deputies to England, and used every argument and entreaty that a reasoning and faithful people could devise; and the only redress offered, has been the council above-named; against which the British merchants in Malta and in London, as well as the Maltese themselves, have protested. Without pledging myself to the statements made, or suggesting the remedies, I have performed my duty in giving publicity to complaints which it is the interest of all parties to examine.

Military Defence.—The island is protected by a naval squadron, Malta being the head quarters of our Mediterranean fleet; and by a garrison of British troops, and a regiment of Maltese fencibles,—consisting of 25 officers, 41 non-commissioned ditto, and 468 rank and file,* which the Maltese themselves pay for. The following table shews the—

* It has been proposed to raise two or three regiments of Maltese fencibles for service in the Mediterranean or West Indies, or in a tropical climate. Such a measure would give relief to the overstocked population of the island; and, as the Maltese make sober and patient troops, they would be well suited for West India servitude, particularly if the enlistment were for a limited period.

Numbers and Distribution of the Effective Force, Officers, Non-commissioned Officers, Rank and File, of the British Army, Artillery and Engineers, including the Maltese Fencibles, in each year since 1815.

	Officers present, or on detached duty at the Station.													
	Colonels.	Lieut.-Colonels.	Majors.	Captains.	Lieutenants.	Ensigns.	Paymasters.	Adjutants.	Quarter Masters.	Surgeons.	Assistant Surgeons.	Serjeants.	Drummers.	Rank and File.
5th January, 1816	..	6	4	30	66	20	3	4	5	5	7	260	86	5870
1817	..	3	3	24	44	15	3	4	3	3	4	152	78	2441
1818	..	4	3	27	35	22	2	3	3	4	5	141	56	2697
1819	..	3	3	16	26	16	1	1	2	2	3	84	44	1596
1820	..	3	3	15	24	15	2	2	2	3	1	71	44	1457
1821	..	1	5	21	26	18	2	2	1	2	3	80	46	1520
1822	..	2	7	19	26	19	2	3	2	3	3	87	39	1921
1823	..	3	6	16	26	17	3	3	3	2	3	89	37	1914
1824	..	2	4	17	22	13	3	3	3	1	4	83	36	1778
1825	..	4	4	15	22	13	3	3	3	3	2	77	35	1679
1826	2	2	4	20	24	17	4	4	4	5	3	119	40	2032
1827	3	3	2	18	26	14	3	4	4	4	4	123	43	2041
1828	3	2	2	24	34	18	3	4	4	4	3	123	47	2214
1829	4	3	4	27	38	18	5	4	5	6	4	149	52	2616
1830	3	3	3	26	36	17	5	5	5	5	5	151	50	2644
1st January, 1831	2	3	4	23	31	13	5	5	5	4	5	153	52	2520
1832	..	2	2	23	32	13	4	4	4	3	5	121	43	1951
1833	1	4	4	24	38	8	5	4	5	4	6	154	55	2392
1834														
1835														

Barracks.—Dr. Hennen truly observes, that to give a minute description of these buildings would be in a great measure to give an account of the stupendous fortifications themselves, for the barracks form integral parts of the works, and the principal walls are common to both. The barrack-yards and squares are in numerous instances formed out of the quarries whence the materials for the fortifications were raised, and the lower floors of the barracks are formed of the surface of these quarries, while the lower part of the walls is merely the rock perpendicularly scarped.

In some instances this peculiarity of structure renders thorough ventilation impossible, but the deficiency is supplied by long galleries and large doors of communication, while the disadvantage is in some measure counterbalanced by the decreased temperature in the summer months.

The principal occupied barracks in the city of Valetta are

those of St. Elmo. They are divided into the upper and lower; the former are permanently occupied by the Royal Artillery. The principal rooms are built around an open quadrangular space of about 80 yards by 40; there are others built in a range on the upper part of the works; in the whole there are 56 rooms of various sizes, from 10 feet by 9, to 20 feet by 15, and from 9 to 15 feet in height. The ventilation is good and complete.

The lower barracks of St. Elmo are always occupied by the corps of infantry quartered in the city of Valetta. They lie on the western side of the fort, and are constructed behind the parapet wall and that part of the rock which is scarped out to form the sea front of the works looking towards the quarantine harbour. These barracks are of three tiers or stories of 175 paces in length, and run nearly E. and W.; the back of the room is principally formed by the solid rock; the front has a southern aspect, and opens to a space from which was originally quarried the materials of the buildings: this space is 180 yards in length, and varies in breadth from 43 to 24 yards. The rooms of the lower tier are only ventilated by the door by which they communicate with this open space or area: they are principally used for stores and cooking-houses. The second tier has a common passage running along the whole front; and opposite each room or archway, in which the men sleep, there is a large window. The rooms of the third tier are of a similar construction, but as their upper part rises above the level of the platforms of the works, they enjoy the additional ventilation of a small window in the rear, which runs from the top of the arch obliquely upwards towards the parapet. At each end of the range there is a staircase of communication, which also affords a circulation of air, the whole is sufficiently well ventilated and lighted.

There is a very ample supply of water in the barrack-yard, and the drainage, after much labour and expense, is now complete.

There is another barrack in Valetta, situated on the land side of the works, in the cavalier of St. James. The native

fencibles are accommodated in this barrack in fourteen casemates in two tiers.

The barracks at Floriana are more modern than those of Valetta, but, like them, are bomb-proof casemates. They are situated on the western side of the isthmus in that part of the works which looks towards the quarantine harbour; they are below the summit level of the esplanade, but still at about 100 feet above the level of the sea. The rooms appropriated for the use of the soldiers consist of casemates with two large ventilators in each roof, and a window over each door. Besides these casemates there are a smaller range of rooms for non-commissioned officers, and for the various purposes of stores, cooking-houses, orderly-rooms, places of confinement, &c. &c. The whole are within an enclosure, which affords sufficient space for the purpose of parading the guards, &c. There is an ample supply of tank water of good quality within this enclosure, and the barracks, though hot, are by no means uncomfortable. As they lie on the opposite side of the works from the Marsa at the head of the great harbour, and are screened from the winds that blow over it by the ridge upon which the suburb of Floriana is built.

The barracks in the Cottonera district, on the eastern side of the harbour, are very numerous. The principal are situated at Isola gate, behind the dockyard, at about sixty feet above the level of the sea. These, like the last described, are bomb-proof casemates; within the last two years several passages have been cut through the rocks in various points, so as to admit of more light and air than they formerly enjoyed.

The barracks consist of fourteen bomb-proofs, of different sizes, shapes, and aspects, with stores, canteens, cook-houses, &c. &c. sufficient to contain 500 men, and are generally occupied as the head-quarters of the corps doing duty on the eastern side of the great harbour. They are confined within an enclosed yard, and are amply supplied with good water; the supply was formerly restricted, but the building of a new tank has effectually obviated that serious deficiency.

The barracks of St. Francesco di Paulo are of the same general character as the preceding, but about 20 feet higher

above the level of the sea. Those of St. Salvador are still higher, being nearly 400 feet above that level. The other barracks are those of St. Helena, Vittoriosa Gate, Zeitun Gate, St. Angelo, &c. &c.

All the barracks are admirably adapted for the purposes for which they are intended; and so numerous, that the health of the troops ought never to suffer from crowding, or from want of every accommodation which barracks can afford.

LAWS.—The despotism both of the Grand Masters of the Order of St. John, and of Great Britain, has almost annihilated anything like a code or *lex scripta*.

A commission has been appointed by His Majesty to examine into the state of the law in Malta, and to prepare a criminal, civil and commercial code. The law, as it is now administered in Malta, is expensive and tedious. A modified system of trial by jury has been introduced for certain criminal cases. The judges, who were formerly paid by fees, are now independent with fixed salaries, and not removable by any authority except by an order of the King in Council. The language of the courts of law is Italian.

In the criminal court it does not appear that there is much business of a very serious nature. The common offence is stealing and pilfering; but there is a remarkable absence of all crimes of a very aggravated nature.

The following returns shew the state of the prison and the number of indictments and death sentences in the island.

Number of Prisoners who have been in confinement in the Great Prison of Valetta, on the 1st day of each of the undermentioned years.

Dates.	1st Class.	2d Class.	3d Class.	4th Class.	5th Class.	6th Class.	Totals.
1st January, 1827	46	58	84	71	..	..	259
1828	48	52	79	96	..	..	275
1829	46	51	71	114	..	..	282
1830	53	46	72	91	..	..	262
1831	51	44	62	98	..	..	255
1832	46	34	57	61	35	8	241
1833	45	35	68	50	31	14	243
1834	42	31	69	72	38	11	263
1835	39	32	71	73	31	14	260
1836							

N.B. Previous to July, 1831, the prisoners were divided into only four Classes, and the female prisoners were included in the fourth Class, but by the new classification, they are no longer included in the Reports of the Great Prison.

Schedule of Indictments presented and determined in His Majesty's Courts, during the undermentioned years.

Years.	Number of		Death.	Imprisonment, with Hard Labour in Irons for						Inferior Punishments.	Total.
	Indictments.	Persons indicted.		Life.	20 years.	10 years.	7 years.	5 years.	3 years.		
1827	..	..	..	4	..	5	4	5	..	156	174
1828	221	251	2	5	..	7	..	10	..	166	190
1829	167	216	..	4	..	2	2	9	..	142	159
1830	150	208	4	4	6	8	4	..	..	124	150
1831	125	153	..	2	..	5	1	12	5	86	111
1832	136	158	..	3	1	9	1	18	10	149	191
1833	83	107	2	2	1	..	..	5	10	156	176
1834	94	116	..	..	..	5	1	11	7	191	215

In the civil courts there is a multiplicity of business; the denseness of the population, and the uncertainty of the law, are probably the causes of the extent of litigation that pervades the island.

The supreme court consists of a chief justice or president, and four members; and there are minor courts, viz. that of special commission, an inferior or magistrates' court; a court for piratical offences; a commercial court, &c.

Revenue and Expenditure.—*The revenue* of Malta is high in proportion to the number of inhabitants, and to the nature of their country: it is on an average £100,000 per annum, arising from the following sources:—

Rent of property of the crown in lands and houses in the Islands of Malta and Gozo, 28,000*l.*; tax on the importation of foreign corn, 30,000*l.*; customs and port dues, 14,000*l.*; excise, 16,000*l.*; quarantine dues, 5,000*l.*; judicial fees, 4,000*l.*; minor taxes, 3,000*l.*

The system under which this revenue is raised is much objected to in England as well as in Malta, and requires the revision of some authority delegated from those who pay the above mentioned taxes.

The rents of the crown property, though sufficiently high under the present system, would be susceptible of an easy and great increase, on restoring some share of the prosperity

Malta may fairly claim, and will then always prove her most legitimate and best source of revenue.

They might be estimated at . . . £40,000

The tax on grain,* though very grievously oppressive when coupled as it is with all the mismanagement, waste and expense of a partial monopoly, would, if the trade were entirely free, produce the same net revenue at a much less charge to the inhabitants, and as the order were accustomed to raise that sum from the same source through the Università, the tax on grain consumed in the island may still be estimated at £20,000

The Excise duties might, if absolutely requisite, be remodelled and extended on a few articles without difficulty,† to £15,000

£75,000

The above sum, it is presumed, under an economical system, would be more than sufficient for the whole expenditure, and would admit of the entire revision of the following taxes:—

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* The duties on grain are levied when the average price per salm of wheat shall be as follows:—

		Wheat.	Other Grains.
At or under 25*s.* per salm		12*s.*	7*s.* 0*d.*
Above 25*s.*, and not exceeding	30*s.* per salm,	11*s.*	6*s.* 6*d.*
30*s.*	35*s.*	10*s.*	6*s.* 0*d.*
35*s.*	40*s.*	9*s.*	5*s.* 6*d.*
40*s.*	45*s.*	8*s.*	5*s.* 0*d.*
45*s.*	50*s.*	7*s.*	4*s.* 6*d.*
50*s.*	55*s.*	6*s.*	4*s.* 0*d.*
55*s.*	60*s.*	5*s.*	3*s.* 0*d.*
60*s.*	65*s.*	3*s.*	1*s.* 6*d.*
63*s.*		1*s.*	0*s.* 6*d.*

There are additional rates on the importations by foreign vessels.

† The duty levied on wine is 8*s.* *per barrel* on wine exceeding the value of £15 per pipe of eleven barrels; 4*d.* addititional if in a *foreign* vessel, and 2*d.* for *storage*. All other wines pay, under the same heads, 1*s.* 8*d.*, 4*d.*, and ½*d.*; vinegar, ditto, 1*s.*, 4*d.*, and ½*d.* British spirits or colonial rum pays 6*s.* per barrel; all other spirits 12*s.* per barrel.

Customs estimated at	£10,000
Quarantine dues	£5,000
Judicial fees	£4,000
Port dues and minor taxes . . .	£7,000
	£26,000

The expenses of prisons, hospitals, and public charities, might be much lessened by restoring the condition of the population.

The quarantine dues at Malta are particularly objected to, on the ground that they should not be levied on the individuals or goods placed in quarantine, but on the general treasury, as it is sufficient punishment to the individual to be kept in confinement, and sufficient detriment to the merchant to have his goods detained and unpacked, without being obliged also to pay for a measure which is one of general police, and not for private benefit.*

The following are the fees levied on ships and persons:—

Shipping in Quarantine.—1. Vessels entered upon a quarantine to pay, for each day of their continuance in port, as follows:—Vessels not exceeding 25 tons, 6*d.*; 26 to 50 ditto, 1*s.*; 51 to 100 ditto, 1*s.* 6*d.*; 101 to 150 ditto, 2*s.*; 151 to 200 ditto, 2*s.* 6*d.*; 201 to 250 ditto, 2*s.* 9*d.*; 251 and upwards, 3*s.*

2. Vessels of whatever size, sailing in quarantine, having entered upon the performance thereof, to pay at the above rates, but in no case more than 2*s.* a day for the remainder of the term of quarantine.

3. Vessels liable to quarantine, not having entered upon the performance thereof, to pay 2*s.* for each day of their continuance in port.

4. Vessels compelled by stress of weather to enter the

* It is said that the present onerous system of quarantine in the Mediterranean is regulated by that of Marseilles, and that the Marseillois purchased the power of enacting their duties, &c. by lending a large sum of money to Napoleon, which neither Buonaparte nor any of his royal successors have found themselves in a condition to repay.

Great Harbour, to be subject, while they remain there, to the additional charge of 3*s.* a day, for every guard boat which the Superintendent of Quarantine may deem it necessary to place over them.

*** Any vessel in quarantine entering the Great Harbour, without a justifiable cause, incurs the penalty of 200 dollars imposed by the second article of the proclamation, dated 12th October, 1820, (No. 13.)

5. Vessels having contagious disease on board to pay an extra rate in proportion to the expense that may be incurred, but in no case to exceed 20*s.* a day, in addition to the usual rate.

Effects received into the Lazaret for depuration, to be chargeable with a due proportion of the actual expense thereof, which, at present on ordinary occasions, is at the rate of 2*s.* 6*d.* a day for each guardian, and 1*s.* 8*d.* a day for each labourer whom it may be necessary to employ.

Cattle landed in the Lazaret, to be chargeable—for each horse, mule, or ass, 3*s.*; bullock, or other animal of the kind, 2*s.*; sheep, goat, pig, or other small animal, 1*s.*

Persons performing quarantine in the Lazaret, to pay at the rate of 2*s.* 6*d.* a day, for each guardian employed, but no single individual to be chargeable with more than 1*s.* 3*d.* a day.

Documents issued under the official seal, 2*s.* 6*d.* each.

The absurdity, to say nothing of the cruelty of checking commerce in Malta, by levyimg duties whether on importation or transit, must be apparent to the veriest tyro in political economy;—the British merchants engaged in the Maltese trade have long been urging on the Government the absolute necessity of removing these duties, instead of complying with which the Government have issued another tariff, thus adding uncertainty in the duration to the mischief of injudicious laws.

The following is the newly modified tariff, and the reader, while observing the petty amount of many of the duties levied, will bear in mind that commerce, especially in a place like Malta, ought to be as free as the air—the very slightest shackle or duty often acting like a prohibition.

A Tariff of the Duties of Import and Dues for Store-Rent, authorized to be levied, for account of Government, by the Collector of Customs, Malta.

Articles.	Import Duty.			Additional Import Duty, when imported by Foreign Vessels.			Store-rent when lodged in Bond, for the first six months or any part thereof exceeding ten days.*		
	£.	s.	d.	£.	s.	d.	£.	s.	d.
Beer, Cider, and Perry, viz.									
In cask, per hogshead	0	6	0	—			0	0	6
In bottle, per doz. bottles, common size	0	0	6	—			0	0	0½
Butter, the cantar, British	0	2	0	—			0	0	10
——— Foreign	0	3	0	—			0	0	10
Candles, the cantar, wax	0	12	0	—			0	2	0
——— spermaceti	0	9	0	—			0	0	6
Cattle, viz. for each									
Bullock and other animal of the kind	0	5	0	0	2	0			
Pig	0	1	6	0	1	0			
Sheep and Goat	0	1	0	0	1	0			
Horse and Mule	0	10	0	0	2	0			
Ass	0	5	0	0	1	0			
Charcoal, the salm	0	0	2	0	1	0	0	0	1
Cheese, the cantar, of the value of 50 shillings or upwards the cantar	0	2	0	—			0	0	8
Coals, fossil,† the ton of 20 English hundred weight, or 1280 Rotoli	0	1	8	—			0	0	2½
Cocoa, the cantar	0	0	6	—			0	0	3
Coffee, the cantar, viz.									
The produce of a British Possession; or otherwise, when imported by British Vessels direct from Great Britain or Ireland	0	1	0	—			0	0	6
The produce of any other place, when not imported by British Vessels direct from Great Britain or Ireland	0	3	0	—			0	0	6
Firewood, the pesata	0	0	1	0	0	6	0	0	0½
Flax, the cantar	0	0	6	—			0	0	4
Hams and Tongues, the cantar	0	2	6	—			0	0	6
Hemp and Tow, the cantar	0	0	2	—			0	0	2
Honey, Treacle, and Molasses, the cantar	0	1	0	—			0	0	2
Manufactured Goods (not separately enumerated) for every £100 value, viz.									
British	1	0	0	—			0	10	0
Foreign	2	0	0	—			0	10	0
*** Manufactured Goods imported from foreign Ports are to be deemed foreign and to pay duty accordingly.									
Oil, Olive, the caffiso	0	0	2	0	0	2	0	0	1
——— when in flask, the dozen flasks common size	0	0	6	—			0	0	0½
Pepper and Pimento, the cantar	0	1	0	—			0	0	5
Potatoes, the cantar	0	0	3	—			0	0	0½
Pulse and Seeds, viz.									
Beans, Canary-seed, Caravanees, Chick-Peas, Hemp-seed, Kidney-Beans, Lentils, Linseed, Lupins, Peas, and Vetches, the salm	0	0	8	0	1	0	0	0	2
Carob Beans and Cotton Seed, the cantar	0	0	3	0	0	4	0	0	1
Rice, the cantar	0	1	0	0	0	6	0	0	2
Sugar, the cantar, viz.									
The produce of a British Possession; or otherwise, when imported by British Vessels direct from Great Britain or Ireland,									
Raw, and in powder	0	6	6	—			0	0	3
In loaves	0	1	0	—			0	0	6
The produce of any other place, when not imported by British Vessels direct from Great Britain or Ireland,									
Raw, and in powder	0	1	6	—			0	0	3
In loaves	0	3	0	—			0	0	6
Tea, the rotolo, viz.									
When imported (in British Vessels) direct from the United Kingdom, the British Possessions in the East Indies, or from China	0	0	1	—			0	0	0½
Otherwise imported	0	0	3	—			0	0	0½
Tobacco, in the leaf, the cantar	0	0	4	—			0	0	3
——— Cigars, the thousand	3	5	0	—			0	0	6
——— Snuff, the rotolo	0	0	3	—			0	0	0½
——— in every other state of preparation, the cantar	0	3	0	—			0	0	4
Wax, the cantar, yellow	0	2	6	—			0	0	10
——— white	0	4	0	—			0	1	0

* And for each succeeding three months, or any part thereof, half the stated rates of Store Rent respectively.
† British coals remain subject, as heretofore, to special regulations in regard to re-exportation.

OBSERVATIONS.—Goods liable to duty in the terms of this Tariff will be exempted therefrom, so long as they shall remain deposited in bond in the warehouses or stores of Government set aside for such express purpose, and also on their removal thence if it be for immediate re-shipment and exportation, subject, if they should remain in deposit during a longer term than ten days, to the rates of store-rent above specified.

No Drawback will be allowed on goods re-exported after they shall have been released for consumption.

FEES.—The Collector of Customs is also authorized to levy, for account of Government, the following Fees:—For each Certificate under the Office Seal, 4s. 2d.; for each Sheet of printed Official Forms, 2d.

Let us hope, however, that as a commencement has been made,* we shall soon witness the entire removal of all shackles on commerce; by so doing, a larger revenue might be raised on excisable articles, as the wealth and comfort of the people improved.

Revenue and Expenditure since 1821 (Colonial Office returns.)

Years.	Revenue.	Expenditure.			Years	Revenue.	Expenditure.		
		Civil.	Military.	Total.			Civil.	Military.	Total.
	£.	£.	£.	£.		£.	£.	£.	£.
1821	98,878	85,579	19,361	101,940	1828	96,899	87,880	11,535	99,415
1822	102,448	120,844	16,991	137,835	1829	95,485	87,867	1,799	89,666
1823	89,465	90,098	16,402	106,500	1830	94,951	83,231	1,670	84,901
1824	92,882	89,416	16,531	105,947	1831	107,296	92,001	15,295	107,296
1825	94,678	87,915	16,140	104,055	1832	101,999	84,054	11,526	95,580
1826	93,688	94,617	16,309	110,926	1833	102,040	83,156	11,550	94,706
1827	117,094	107,039	16,938	123,977	1834	105,080	85,530	11,975	97,505

The general distribution of the money is thus shewn for the year 1834:—civil establishment, 25,913*l.*; contingencies, 32,596*l.*; judicial establishments, 12,516*l.*; contingencies, 2,795*l.*; ecclesiastical establishments, 320*l.*; miscellaneous, 3,311*l.*; pensions and gratuities, 8,006*l.*; total, 85,530*l.* The military expenditure is for a regiment of Maltese fencibles, as subsequently explained.

The expenditure of the island defrayed by Great Britain, amounted in 1829 to 101,181*l.*, thus four regiments 70,502*l.*, Ordnance, 25,879*l.*; Commissariat, 29,800*l.*; Staff, 3,000*l.*; total, 129,181*l.*; but deducting 28,000*l.* stoppages from the

* From the 9th of May last, the import duty ceased on the following articles:—viz., alum, bacon, and lard; barilla, beef and pork, salted, empty bottles, brass, brooms, tallow candles, chairs; common, Sicilian, and Sardinian cheese and ricotto; chesnuts, cochineal, copper, copperas, cork, cotton wool, drugs, faggots for manufacture, fish, fruits, galls, glue, gum Arabic, gunpowder; hoops, wood, and iron; indigo, iron, lead, madder roots, mats, oars, linseed oil, olives, olive staves, pipe staves; pitch, tar, and rosin; wooden platters, puzzolino, salt, saltpetre, leaden shot, shumac, raw silks, soap, spices, sponges, steel, sulphur, tallow, tin in bars, tin plates, turpentine, valonia, vermilion; woods—viz., deals, rafters, ship timber and beams, mahogany, ebony, lignum vitæ, Pernambuco and logwood, and other goods for dying, and wool.

soldiers for the rations, 101,181*l.* In the year 1832, the amount paid by Great Britain for the military expenditure of Malta was 100,462*l.* viz: regimental pay, clothing and hospital charges, exclusive of contingencies, 63,060*l.*; pay of General and Medical Staffs, Government Officers and Chaplain, 2,444*l.* *Ordnance.*—Pay and allowances of Artillery and Engineers, 7,892*l.*; Civil Department, 1,833*l.*, Contingents, 412*l.*; Ordnance Stores, 3,196; Military Works, 2,860*l.*; Barrack Department, 718*l.*; repair of Barracks, &c. 3,197*l.*; Barrack Stores, 1,102*l.*; Commissariat pay and allowance, 2,108*l.*; provisions, forage, fuel, stores, and freight, 20,404*l.*; contingents, 358*l.*; army vessels, 32*l.*; transport of troops and stores, 4,587*l.*; surplus provisions and stores, 1,985*l.*; total expense, 116,141*l.*; but deducting 15,678*l.* stoppages, the actual cost to Great Britain was 100,463*l.* The cost of the Maltese regiment, which is defrayed by the people of the island, is, for the year ending March, 1836, (all ranks, strength 534) pay and daily allowances, 10,576*l.*; extras, 140*l.*; clothing, 500*l.*; total, 11,216*l.*

To the present distribution of the island revenue, the Maltese object not only by reason of the high salaries in proportion to the wants of the functionaries, prices of provisions, &c. but also by reason of the Maltese being themselves shut out from many places of emolument or distinction; Mr. Mitrovich has addressed to me the following return of the salaries now paid in support of this position.

'Lieutenant-Governor, 5,000*l.*; Chief Secretary, 1,500*l.*; Chief Justice, 1,500*l.*; Treasurer, 900*l.*; Superintendent of Quarantine, 800*l.*; Attorney General, 800*l.*; Collector of Land Revenue, 700*l.*; Agent for the Grain Department, 600*l.*; Superintendent of do. 500*l.*; Director of Public Works, 500*l.*; Auditor of Accounts, 500*l.*; First Magistrate of Judicial Police and Coroner,* 430*l.*; First Assistant, Secretary's Office, 430*l.*; Magistrate of Gozo, and Collector of Land Revenue, 400*l.*; Collector of Customs, 400*l.*; Super-

* After the death of John Locker, Esq., the place of First Magistrate of Judicial Police is said to have been abolished.

intendent of Marine Police, 350*l.*; Magistrate of Executive Police, 350*l.*; Lieutenant-Governor of Gozo, 350*l.*; Chaplain to the Civil Government, 300*l.*; Superintendent of the Government Printing Office, 250*l.*; Superintendent of the Island Post Office, 250*l.*; Clerk, Secretary's Office, &c. 200*l.*; Adjutant of Police, and Lieutenant R.M. Fencibles, 200*l.*; Captain of the Quarantine, 200*l.*; Magistrate of Judicial Police, 180*l.*; Clerk, Grain Department, 160*l.*; Secretary to the Lieutenant-Governor of Gozo, 150*l.*; Clerk, Civil Hospital, 120*l.*; Clerk to the Auditor of Accounts, 120*l.*; Head Master of Public Works, 110*l.* (Some of the above have besides half-pay in the army or navy, and some have a house rent free, and others at a rental of one-third only of the annual value.) Colonel Rivarola, a Corsican, 850*l.*; the Agent in England for the Government of Malta, and certainly *not for the Maltese*, 500*l.*; Rev. F. Laing, pension, 400*l.*; Sir Wm. Ball, do. 600*l.*; R. R. Wood, Esq. (if still continued, we hope not) 1,000*l.*; Audit Colonial Office in England, 2,300*l.*; to persons styling themselves Knights of St. John of Jerusalem, 1,600*l.*; total, 25,500*l.*'*

If, says Mr. Mitrovich, from the above sum of 25,600*l.* we deduct the last two items, not knowing how they are distributed, and that of 5,000*l.* enjoyed by the Lieutenant Governor, whose salary should not be compared with that of any other officer, there remains 16,700*l.* divided among 34 individuals, viz. 33 Englishmen and one Corsican. Taking the salaries of 34 Maltese employed under Government of the highest rank and salaries, we find as follows:—

4 Judges, at 430*l.* each, 1,720; 1 do. at 350*l.*; 1 do. 300*l.* Second Assistant Secretary's Office, and Registrar of the Supreme Council of Justice, 400*l.*; 6 Lord Lieutenants of districts, at 85*l.* each, 510*l.*; 1 Cashier to the Treasurer, 400*l.*; 1 Magistrate of Judicial Police, 250*l.*; 1 Assistant Land Revenue, 200*l.*; 2 do. Marine Police, 350*l.*; 1 Collector of Excise, 200*l.*; 1 Magistrate for the markets, 200*l.*; 1 Pur-

* Most of these are pretty correctly stated, but there have been a few slight alterations which will not however affect the general argument.

veyor, Civil Hospital, 200*l.*; 1 Physician do. 120*l.*; 2 Surgeons do. 240*l.*; 2 King's Counsel, 340*l.*; 1 Registrar to Appeal Court, 150*l.*; 3 do. to Civil Court, 1, 2, and 3 Halls, 300*l.*; 1 Assistant of the Executive Police, 120*l.*; 1 Magistrate of Judicial Police, 180*l.*; 1 Police and Quarantine Physician, 140; 1 Captain of the Lazaretto, 200*l.*; total, 6,870*l.*

Mr. Mitrovich remarks that, besides this difference of nearly 10,000*l.* the four eldest Maltese judges are paid salaries equal to that of the first assistant of the Chief Secretary's Office; and the two junior a great deal less; and if we make the comparison, say the salaries of the judges, with those of the several heads of departments, we shall find a great difference against the judges, although the duties of the several heads of departments are not comparable with those of a judge. Let the Maltese peaceably persevere in seeking justice, and they will obtain it.

MONETARY SYSTEM.—There are two banks of discount and deposit, who circulate their own notes of ten scudi's and upwards, without any connection with or support from Government. The whole capital is deposited in shares of 1,000 Sicilian dollars in 2,500 scudi's each, which shares may be transferred with the approval of the Directors, who are elected from among the shareholders, and serve gratis. The expenses of these establishments, as well as interest and profit on the shares, are paid by discounting bills, with two approved signatures, of not more than three months date, at the rate of six per cent. per annum,—paper offered by shareholders enjoying a preference. These banks have done much in retaining some commerce at Malta in lieu of the bad system that destroys it. The capital of each bank does not now probably exceed 200,000*l.* and the circulation of the notes of both will not now be likely to exceed half the deposited capital. The coins in circulation are chiefly Spanish and Sicilian dollars, with some of the silver coin in England for the colonies generally; and some copper coin for Malta in substitution of the copper coinage of the Order of St. John, latterly withdrawn; a small quantity of the silver and gold

coin of the Grand Masters still remains in circulation, as well as the coins of various surrounding countries, many of which are current at fluctuating values.

There is little or no gold coin in circulation; the amount of silver and copper currency is estimated at 150,000*l.* sterling; and of paper currency at 20,000*l.*

A singular institution exists at Malta, termed the Monte di Pietà, which was established there in the year 1597; and, like all institutions of the sort in other parts of Europe, particularly at Rome, with the object of affording pecuniary relief to the distressed at reasonable interest, thereby preventing them from having recourse to usurious contracts. Any sum of money, however small, is advanced to the applicants on the security of property given in pawn,—such as gold, silver, and other precious articles, or wearing apparel, whether worn or new. The period of the loan is for three years on pawns of the first description, and never more than two on those of the latter, renewable at the option of the parties, who are also at liberty to redeem their pawns at any time within the period on payment of interest in proportion. The rate of interest now charged is six per cent. per annum. The unclaimed pawns at the expiration of the period, are sold by public auction, and the residue of the proceeds, after deducting the sum due to the institution, is payable to the person producing the ticket. Of the accommodation thus afforded by the Monte, not unfrequently persons in better circumstances have availed themselves for any monetary exigency, and in this way considerable sums have been advanced.

'Till the year 1787, the operations of this institution were conducted by means of money borrowed at a moderate interest, and by funds acquired by donations, &c. But the then Grand Master, Rohan, authorised the consolidation of the funds of the Monte di Pietà with those of the Monte di Redenzione, another institution, equally national, founded in the year 1607 by private donations and bequests, for the philanthropic object of rescuing from slavery any of the natives who might fall into the hands of Mahomedans, not having means

of ransom. As this institution had larger funds (mostly in landed property) than it actually required to meet all demands, the act of consolidation proved of the greatest advantage to the Monte di Pietà. Thus united, the two institutions, with the new title of Monte di Pietà e Redenzione, conducted their separate duties under the superintendence of a Board, consisting of a President and eight Commissioners, till the expulsion of the Order of St. John from Malta, which happened in the year 1798. The French Republicans, by whom the island was then occupied, stripped the Monte of every article, whether in money or pawns, and the loss sustained by the institution on that unfortunate occasion amounted nearly to 35,000*l.*, including the share of the proprietors of pawns, inasmuch as the advance they received on that security never exceeded one-half or two-thirds of the value of the articles pawned. It is needless to state that not a shilling of this sum was repaid by the French Government after the restoration of their legitimate monarchs.*

When the British forces took possession of La Valetta in September, 1800, it was one of the first cares of the head of the Government to see this useful institution resume its operations. Accordingly, a new Board was elected, and about 4,000 pounds advanced to them, without interest, from the local treasury. A loan was opened, to which individuals did not hesitate to contribute when they were assured that the institution considered itself bound to pay the old loan, though forming part of the amount carried away by the French, and that in the meantime interest would be paid on it. The Monte possessing landed property to a much greater amount could never refuse such an act of Justice. Happily, the cessation of slavery having put an end to the old charge for ransoms, enabled the institution to devote its revenues to the payment of interest on the old loan, to the extinction of part of the capital, to the improvement of its property; and for the last *ten years* to assign a subsidy of 500*l.* per annum to the House of Industry.

* If the Maltese had not been excluded from the capitulation of 1800, they would not have lost this money.

There is another Monte di Pietà at Gozo, established by the late Sir Alexander Ball about *thirty years* ago, but its operations are extremely limited, inasmuch as it possesses no funds of its own worth mentioning, and has no capital at its disposal but 4,400 dollars, borrowed from the Monte di Pietà e Redenzione of Malta, at the interest of three per cent. per annum.

Course of Exchange.—The Committee of Merchants declare a rate of exchange with England twice a week, founded on the actual transactions during the intervening days.

The Commissary, in pursuance of his instructions from the Lords Commissioners of his Majesty's Treasury, grants bills on their Lordships at the rate of 100*l.* in exchange for every 101*l.* 10*s.* tendered to him in British silver money. He has not for some time advertised for any supplies in other than British specie; should he have occasion so to do, he must come in competition with the merchants.

The average rate of the commercial exchange on London during the last year has been 50*d.* per dollar of exchange of 30 taris.

The following are the average rates of exchange with the principal ports of the Mediterranean :—

Sicily . .	10*s.* 4*d.*	sterling	per ounce of $2\frac{1}{2}$ dollars.
Naples . .	3*s.* 5*d.*	ditto	per ducat of 100 grains.
Leghorn . .	4*s.* 2*d.*	ditto	per gold dollar.
Genoa . .	0*s.* 8*d.*	ditto	per Lira Fuori banco.
Trieste . .	2*s.* 1*d.*	ditto	per florin.
Marseilles .	0*s.* $9\frac{1}{2}$*d.*	ditto	per franc.

The Government departments (since the 25th of December 1825) keep their accounts and conduct their cash transactions in sterling, in the same manner as in England.

Monies.—The introduction of British money into these possessions has not hitherto produced among the commercial body of inhabitants generally any alteration of the mode of keeping their accounts, and of making sales, contracts, &c. which are continued as formerly in Maltese currency, namely, scudi, tari, and grains. 20 grains = 1 tari; 12 taris = 1 scudo, = 1*s.* 8*d.* sterling.

The current gold coin is either the French louis d'or, or a piece bearing the effigy of a Grand Master, both value about 10 scudi = 16*s.* 8*d.* Spanish doubloons, with an agio, from 40 to 40½ scudi; Venetian sequins from 4¾ to 5 scudi; and the Sicilian ounce = 6¼ scudi.

Silver. Sicilian dollar = 2½ scudi; Grand Master pieces of 2 and 1 scudi; pieces of 15, 10, 6, and 5 taris each; Spanish dollar = 2 scudi, 7 taris, and 4 grains.

The following are the weights and measures of Malta:—

WEIGHTS for gold, siver, pearl, precious stones, &c.—

								Cocci.
							Trepesa....	18
						Sedicesimo..	2	36
					Octavo....	2	4	72
				Quarta....	2	4	8	144
			Oncia....	4	8	16	32	576
		Libbra....	12	48	96	192	384	6,912
	Rotolo*....	2½	30	120	240	480	960	17,280
Pesa....	5	12½	150	600	1,200	2,400	4,800	86,400
Cantaro† ..	20	100	250	3,000	12,000	24,000	48,000	96,000	1,728,000

* A rotolo is equal to 1¾ lbs. English. † A cantaro is equal to 175 lbs. English.

For every description of dry goods:—

				Cocci.
			Quarta....	144
		Oncia....	4	576
	Rotolo....	30	120	17,280
Pesa..	5	150	600	86,400
Cantaro..	20	100	3,000	12,000	1,728,000
Pesata or Quintale*	3	60	300	9,000	36,000	5,184,000

* Firewood is sold by the pesata of three cantars.

MEASURES.—*Dry Measure.* For all grain and pulse, almonds, olives, salt, and various seeds and charcoal:—

				Lumini.
			Half Misura	5
		Misura..	2	10
	Mondello..	10	20	100
	Tumolo..	6	60	120	600
	Sacco..	4	24	240	480	2,400
Salma*..	4	16	96	960	1,920	9,600

* One salma is equal to about 7⅞ bushels, imperial measure. Wheat and barley are sold by the stricked, and all others by the heaped measure.

Long Measure.—For cloth, linen, cotton, stone, &c.:—

				Punti.
			Linea..	12
		Police..	12	144
	Palmo*..	12	144	1,728
Canna†....	8	96	1,152	13,824

* 3¾ palmi make an English yard, and 12 palmi in length and 1 in thickness make a tratta, by which measure ship timber and beams for houses are sold.

† 156 square canne are equal to 1 tumolo of land; 16 square tumoli are equal to 1 salma; the salma is equal to 4·44 English acres.

Liquid Measure.—For all liquids; oil, milk, and honey excepted:—

								Mezza Pinta.
							Pinta..	2
						Terzo..	2	4
					Mezzo..	2	4	8
				Quartino..	2	4	8	16
			Mezza Quartara.	9¼	19	38	76	152
		Quartara..	2	19	38	76	152	304
	Barrile*..	2	4	38	76	152	304	608
a..	11	22	44	418	836	1,672	3,344	6,688
..	2	2	44	88	836	1,672	3,344	6,688	13,376

* The barrile is about equal to 9·37 imperial gallons.

Liquid Measure.—For oil and milk :—

						Quartini.
					Misura..	4
				Terzo..	2½	10
			Mezzo..	2	5	20
		Quartucci..	2	4	10	40
	Quarta..	4	8	16	40	160
Half Cafiso.	2	8	16	32	80	320
Cafiso.. *	2	4	16	32	64	160	640
Barrile..	2	4	8	32	64	128	320	1,280

* A cafiso is about equal to 4·38 imperial gallons.

COMMERCE.—The trade of Malta subsequent to 1804, during the continental war, was very great; but the plague, followed by the peace of Paris, and the consequent throwing open of the Mediterranean ports, as well as other operating circumstances, lessened materially the traffic of the place as a deposit for merchandise in its transit to other markets. But although the plague and the peace helped to destroy the great commerce of Malta, yet other causes must be sought for its decline, as the island did not at any time enjoy an exclusive monopoly of the Mediterranean trade, because it was impossible to deprive Barcelona, Marseilles, Genoa, Leghorn, Messina, Ancona, Trieste, Smyrna, Alexandria, and other places, of some share of a trade which local or other advantages would always command; but neither a temporary pestilential disease, nor a general peace, which ought to facilitate commerce, should deprive Malta of the advantages which it naturally possesses for trade under the protection of the British flag. The value of the trade carried on since 1823, is thus shewn in sterling money :—

Years.	IMPORTS FROM			Total Value of Imports.	Total Exports.
	Great Britain.	British Colonies.	Foreign States.		
1823 . . .	242,362	51,590	363,326	657,278	
1824 . . .	176,972	42,934	353,015	572,921	
1825 . . .	144,132	24,177	301,058	469,367	No returns.
1826 . . .	162,578	38,479	311,792	512,849	
1827 . . .	144,302	39,142	375,186	562,630	
1828 . . .	133,118	37,914	429,671	600,703	
1829 . . .	166,877	26,554	353,802	541,233	393,707
1830 . . .	157,081	25,020	340,523	522,624	428,670
1831 . . .	139,103	15,776	396,253	561,132	384,120
1832 . . .	87,641	28,295	380,195	506,131	319,810
1833 . . .	106,621	40,839	355,984	503,444	364,277
1834 . . .	182,982	27,260	379,419	591,666	403,377

The imports and exports for the year 1834, as forwarded to me from the Custom House at Malta, were as follows:—

Articles Imported.		Estimated Value in Sterling.				
	Description and Quantity.	From Great Britain.	British Colonies.	United States of America.	Foreign States.	Total.
	Manufactures in Packages and in Bulk	114,517	10,571	411	35,463	160,962
	Sugar, refined and crushed	22,647	464	—	242	23,353
Colonial Produce.	Coffee and Cocoa	8,448	2,255	2,510	3,756	16,969
	Indigo	2,640	2	—	1	2,643
	Rum	1,491	3	—	—	1,494
	Spices	4,575	429	205	1,751	6,960
	Sugar, Raw	16,500	6,036	2,922	1,862	27,320
	Tea	52	1,566	691	149	2,458
Raw Materials.	Brimstone	—	—	—	1,171	1,171
	Drugs and articles used in Dying	767	102	183	1,594	2,646
	Flax, Hemp and Tow	—	292	—	2,628	2,920
	Hides, Salted and Dried	—	1,252	—	3,725	4,977
	Rosin and Tar	242	24	81	198	545
	Seeds in general	—	—	—	4,187	4,187
	Silk, Raw	13	—	—	—	13
	Tobacco Leaf	2,452	2,320	732	9,831	15,335
	Wax	—	4	—	460	464
	Wood, Timber, Deals, &c.	165	—	121	8,087	8,373
	Wool and Cotton Wool	—	—	—	357	357
	Miscellanies	237	20	—	1,846	2,103
Provisions, Fuel, Wines, Spirits, &c.	Beans, Pease, Caravances, &c. ..	—	—	—	29,065	29,065
	Biscuit	—	—	—	100	100
	Bullocks, Pigs and Sheep	—	—	—	24,418	24,418
	Carob Beans	—	239	—	2,863	3,102
	Coal and Charcoal	1,603	—	—	8,755	10,358
	Cheese	1,623	—	1,628	1,271	4,522
	Fish Salted and Dried	1,760	2,469 *	204	7,043	11,476
	Flour	—	—	—	162	162
	Fruit, Dried	—	25	—	16,835	16,860
	Grain, viz.—Wheat	—	—	—	93,337	93,337
	Indian Corn	—	—	—	6,978	6,978
	Barley	—	—	—	6,380	6,380
	Meat, Salted and Dried	336	176	—	5,999	6,511
	Mules, Horses and Asses	—	—	—	384	384
	Oil, and Linseed Oil	—	—	—	26,720	26,720
	Olives, Salted	—	—	—	1,050	1,050
	Olive Stones and Firewood	—	—	—	8,518	8,518
	Paste and Macaroni	—	—	—	700	700
	Potatoes	3	—	—	1,311	1,314
	Rice	1,013	68	98	1,486	2,665
	Spirits (Brandy and Gin)	1,524	45	—	4,483	6,052
	Vinegar	—	—	—	1,453	1,453
	Wine	352	895	—	41,444	42,691
	Miscellaneous	22	8	—	1,606	1,636
	Total value of Imports	£182,982	27,260	9,786	369,633	591,666

* Of this £2,005 were from our Colonies in North America.

In the preceding Table of Imports a return is given of such articles only as paid consumption duty.

The exports from Malta for 1834, were estimated in pounds sterling thus:—

Manufactures.—British and Foreign, 103,137*l.*; Malta, viz. cotton cloth, 37,031*l.*; ditto coverlets, 300*l.*; ditto nankeens, 1,111*l.*; ditto sail cloth, 17,458*l.*; ditto yarn, 34,935*l.*; wrought gold and silver, 5,500*l.*; cut stone, 672*l.*

Colonial Produce.—Coffee and cocoa, 17,273*l.*; indigo, 740*l.*; rum, 720*l.*; spices, 6,656*l.*; sugar, raw, 9,107*l.*; sugar, refined and crushed, 14,888*l.*; tea, 1,750*l.*

Raw Materials.—Alum, 35*l.*; argols, 35*l.*; barilla, 1,275.; drugs and dye stuffs, 2,090*l.*; elephants' teeth, 104*l.*; flax, hemp, and tow, 730*l.*; hides, salted and dried, 15,903*l.*; natron, 162*l.*; pitch, tar, and rosin, 1,318*l.*; silk, raw, 70*l.*; skins, 183*l.*; tobacco, leaf, 1,833*l.*; vermilion, 541*l.*; vitriol, 31*l.*; wax, 376*l.*; wood, viz. boxwood, 184*l.*; ditto campeachy, 283*l.*; ditto firewood, 71*l.*; ditto mahogany, 65*l.*; ditto staves and hoops, 105*l.*; ditto timber and deals, 3,761*l.*; wool, and foreign cotton wool, 4,105*l.*; ditto Malta cotton (white), 10,218*l.*; ditto, ditto, (red), 381*l.*

Grain, Pulse, Provisions, &c.—Almonds, 447*l.*; beer, 372*l.*; biscuit, 65*l.*; carob beans, 563*l.*; cheese, 222*l.*; chesnuts, 70*l.*; fish, salted and dried, 4,315*l.*; flour, 191*l.*; fruit, dried, 6,451*l.*; grain, viz. wheat, 2,353*l.*; ditto Indian corn, 747*l.*; ditto barley, 4,893*l.*; meat, salted and dried, 46*l.*; nuts, 580*l*; paste, 759*l.*; potatoes, 1,947*l.*; pulse, 90*l.*; rice, 623*l.*; seeds, in general, 623*l.*; spirits, viz. gin and brandy, 2,825*l.*; ditto rum, not colonial, 1,758*l.*; vinegar, 14*l.*; wine, 17,418*l.*; coals and charcoal, 347*l.*; gums, 74*l.*; gunpowder, 1,176*l.*; incense, 90*l.*; iron, 849*l.*; lead, 249*l.*; liquorice paste, 73*l.*; oil, and linseed oil, 14,385*l.*; salt, 33*l.*; segars, 13,000*l.*; soap, hard, 1,065*l.*; spunges, 333*l.*; tin, 6*l.*; tin plates, 501*l.*; tobacco, manufactured, 555*l.*—Total, 403,377*l.*

In the foregoing Schedule of Exports, a return is given of all articles exported, whether of staple commodity imported from abroad, lodged in bond, or transhipped; but as no export duty is levied at this port, and as there are no prohibitions which render an examination into the nature of export cargoes necessary, it has been founded throughout upon data

partly hypothetical, and must therefore be considered merely as approximating to the truth.

There has been no possibility of stating, with any degree of precision, the several places to which the articles have been shipped; it is known, however, that the Malta cotton yarn, and the manufactures therefrom, were chiefly destined for Tuscany, the Venetian and Roman States, Ionian Islands, and Barbary.

SHIPPING.—The shipping employed in the trade of Malta is thus indicated for the last twelve years; and though it has fluctuated considerably, it would appear to be on the whole increasing.

Years.	FROM						Total Inwards.		TO						Total Outwards.	
	Great Britain.		British Colonies.		Foreign States.				Great Britain.		British Colonies.		Foreign States.			
	No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.
1823	138	21230	439	32665	780	62126	1357	116021	138	22143	438	34055	772	62048	1348	118246
1824	216	35898	448	27771	889	69443	1553	130112	210	34993	470	27487	891	70561	1571	183041
1825	139	23099	508	29861	880	67657	1527	120617	133	22459	489	29479	895	70573	1571	122511
1826	147	25539	250	32125	591	61922	988	119586	133	22927	241	32466	582	59219	956	114582
1827	230	40047	254	33555	708	87556	1192	161168	229	40540	343	33173	698	85804	1270	159577
1828	204	33953	257	35569	738	90925	1199	160447	202	33685	279	38918	735	91550	1216	164153
1829	393	31981	290	41294	685	77844	1368	151119	180	39811	255	35013	673	78497	1114	153321
1830	174	28728	309	44662	637	68908	1120	142298	177	28833	261	36757	624	66665	1062	132245
1831	187	29661	292	35665	801	108650	1280	173976	180	28572	268	30439	774	102605	1222	161616
1832	103	16784	*25	4125	1320	160116	1448	181025	16	2730	*20	3694	1463	174607	1508	181031
1833	90	13091	38	5895	1402	137611	1530	156597	36	6780	47	8951	1522	153078	1605	168773
1834	106	16743	26	4437	1591	133741	1723	154921†	44	7616	27	5107	1669	156075	1740	169792

* The sudden transition in the Colonial Shipping between 1831 and 1832 is so marked in the official returns at the Colonial Office, whence the table is derived; no explanation can be afforded.

† Of small craft, the voyages of which are principally confined to the S. and S. E. coast of Sicily, the number *inwards* was 788, tonnage 14,289, men 7,586; *outwards*, 715, tonnage 15,682, men 7,852.

Vessels of all Nations which entered the Ports of Malta in 1834.

QUARANTINE HARBOUR.					GREAT HARBOUR.					Total Number of Vessels.
Above 30 Tons.		Under 30 Tons.		Tonnage.	Above 30 Tons.		Under 30 Tons.		Tonnage.	
English.	Foreign.	English.	Foreign.		English.	Foreign.	English.	Foreign.		
249	287	16	—	86,012	186	45	377	247	76,089	1819

Return of the Number of Vessels, &c. belonging to Malta and Gozo, in January, 1835.

	250 Tons and Upwards.	100 to 250 Tons.	20 to 100 Tons.	20 Tons and Under.	Total Number of Vessels.	Total Number of Tons.
Number of Vessels belonging to Malta	15	67	25	40	147	16,868
Of which, were built in Malta . .	9	42	17	40	108	10,434
Crews of the above						1,522
Number of Boats, of all descriptions, belonging to Malta . . .						906
— of Boats, belonging to Gozo						97
						1,003
Number of Men employed						2,817

GENERAL VIEW.—The most superficial statesman must perceive at a glance the importance of Malta to England; Gibraltar, it is true, is the key to the Mediterranean; but were we only in possession of the 'Rock,' the distance of our naval station from the seat of active commerce in Eastern Europe, would be attended with very great disadvantages, to say nothing of the commercial emporium which Malta ought to become; in fact we have never yet considered the island in its true light; it has been too much considered as a garrison or naval station, instead of a central depôt for our merchandize—one of those numerous shops or warehouses which our ancestors wisely established for the sale of British goods in different parts of the globe.

History proves that Malta, from the time of the Carthaginians upwards, owed the greatness which it exhibited at various periods, to its being a free port; and it has always declined when its commerce was checked by duties and restrictions, or when treated as a mere military post; our government has unfortunately been disposed to regard it in the latter light; the people are denied the exercise of political rights—free public discussion prohibited—military governors, military secretaries,* and military officials,† abound—and little else is considered but how the revenue may be augmented to the maintenance of salaries and patronage; for

which purpose duties are imposed on trade which should, particularly in a place like Malta, be as free as air; while the quarantine duties imposed for general protection, are levied on the goods and passengers arriving in the island, instead of on the national treasury and local income. It is to be hoped that the impolicy of pursuing this pernicious system has been perceived, and that the removal of the duties from various articles imported into Malta, is but a prelude to the total annihilation of all customs and duties, the enactment of which in such a place is as barbarous as it is impolitic. The few merchants who have survived the wreck of so wretched a system (if system it can be called, which is without rule or reason) complain also, and strongly, of the frequent changing of the tariff; within a few years there have been three different schedules, so that no person can count on the stability of the laws which his property is subject to. The state of jurisprudence also, inciting as it does to constant litigation, is unfavourable to the successful prosecution of trade; while the poverty of the people, owing to heavy taxation, combined with a total absence of self-government, aided by a custom house and quarantine duties, renders Malta one of the least prosperous possessions of the British crown. It will cost England nothing to render Malta once more flourishing and happy;—let it be declared a totally free port (the quarantine expenses being levied out of the general taxes‡)—let a representative assembly be given to the Maltese, with power, of course, to remedy the numerous existing abuses, and to

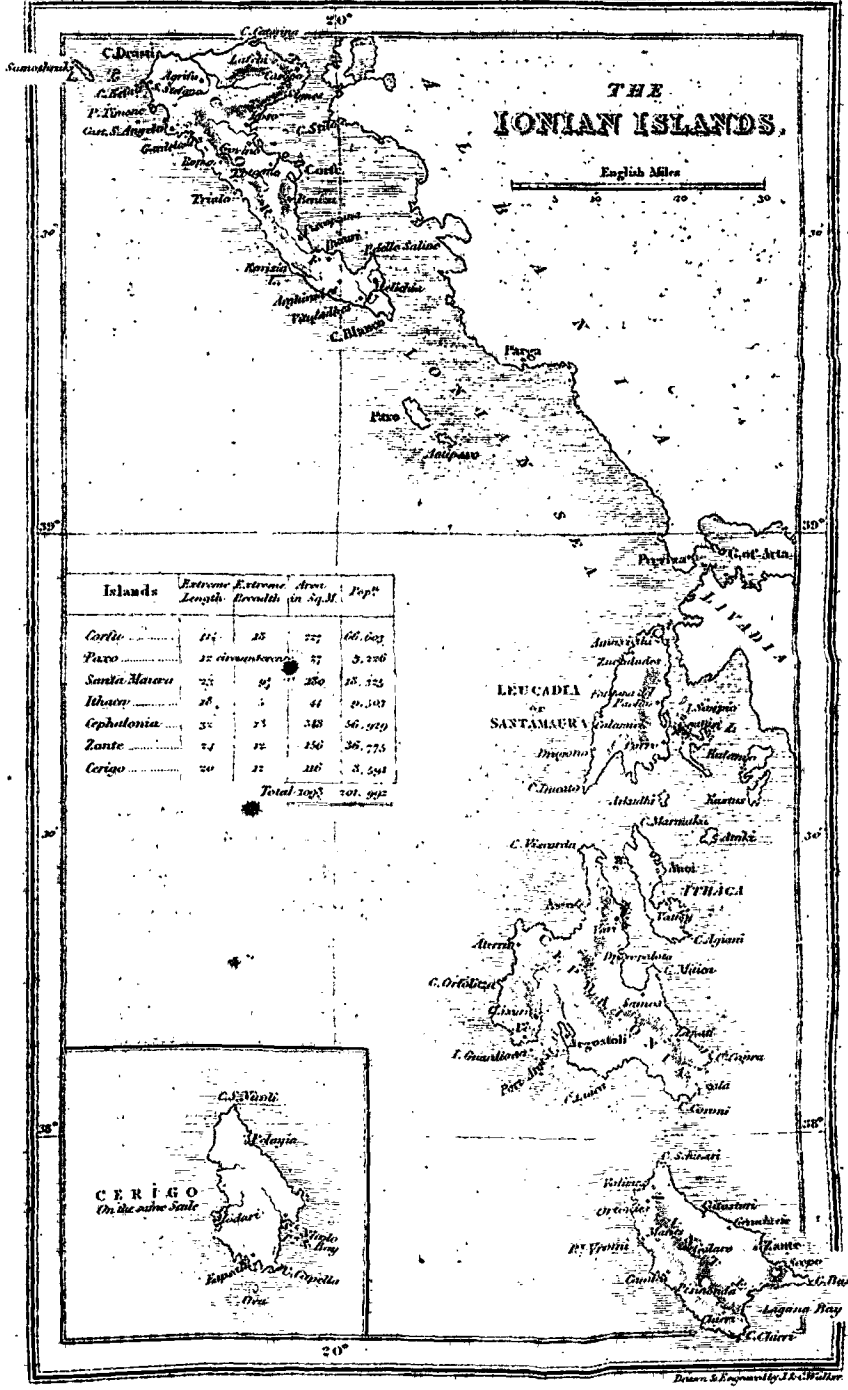
* I am given to understand that one of these gentlemen at Malta said, 'We do not want merchants or traders here; they are troublesome gentry!'

† To such an extent has this been carried, that sometime since when Malta had an agent in England, a person arriving in London, and wishing to transact business with him, was told he must go down to Windsor, *as the agent for Malta was on duty there as a Cornet in the Dragoon Guards!*

‡ It is surely quite hardship enough that an individual should be confined, and a merchant have his ship detained, and his goods rifled and fumigated, without demanding payment for what is deemed a public good; if it be so, let the public pay for it, and not the *detenus*.

revise the system of taxation now in force. By thus acting Malta may again become that which nature designed it for—the centre of an active commerce; its industrious, skilful* and peaceful inhabitants will carry British merchandize in small and large quantities where English ships would not think of proceeding, thus enriching themselves and benefitting us. We owe these boons, or rather let me call them *rights*, to the Maltese, who fought bravely for that political liberty which we so shamefully deprived them of, without having even the plea of conquest to justify our proceedings. I cannot here enter into a detail of the arguments by which the necessity for the adoption of these measures would be supported, they will be found in my 'Colonial Policy," chapters *Government* and *Commerce;* and I therefore conclude with expressing a hope that the Maltese will strenuously persevere in their endeavours to obtain a representative assembly; and that the constituted authorities in England may see the wisdom of no longer considering Malta as a mere military fief, but as a valuable commercial depôt;—and that its inhabitants may be admitted to those rights and privileges of British subjects, to which they have proved themselves so fully entitled.

* An interesting proof of the talents of the Maltese is offered in the classical and elaborate sculpture of Mr. Ferdinand Dimech, lately arrived in London (Dean Street, near Oxford Street), whose taste and execution do honour to his native island. The stone is quarried in Malta, and, though capable of the highest relief, easily worked, a circumstance that may occasion it to become a valuable article of commerce. It is peculiarly fitted for, and would add to the beauty of our interior architectural decorations.



Islands	Extreme Length	Extreme Breadth	Area in Sq. M.	Popn
Corfu	14	25	227	66,603
Paxo	12 circumference		27	3,226
Santa Maura	22	8½	230	15,325
Ithaca	18	5	44	9,507
Cephalonia	32	23	348	56,929
Zante	24	12	156	36,775
Cerigo	20	12	116	3,541
		Total 1093		201,902

Published by James Cochrane & Co.n Waterloo Place London Nov.r 1.st 1835.

CHAPTER III.

IONIAN ISLANDS.

CORFU.

GEOGRAPHY—HISTORY—PHYSICAL ASPECT—GEOLOGY AND SOIL—CLIMATE AND DISEASES—POPULATION—RELIGION, EDUCATION, AND THE PRESS—AGRICULTURE—VEGETABLE, ANIMAL, AND MINERAL KINGDOMS—GOVERNMENT—LAWS—CRIMES AND GAOLS—MILITARY DEFENCE—FINANCES, REVENUE AND EXPENDITURE—MONETARY SYSTEM—WEIGHTS AND MEASURES—COMMERCE—IMPORTS AND EXPORTS—SHIPPING, &c.—SOCIAL STATE, &c.

THE septinsular union of the Ionian isles, situate in the Ionian Sea, between the parallels of 36° and 40° South, and the meridian of 20° and 23° East of Greenwich, and extending from the Albanian Coast to the southern extremity of the Morean peninsula, have long excited the interest of the classical, political, and commercial world.

The early history of these islands, called by the modern Greeks Frank isles (Φραγκονησια) is so intertwined with the mythology of the Greeks and Romans, that it is difficult for sober truth to find a starting point. The islands would appear to have been early colonized, remained for many years as separate states, were partly in the possession of Corinth, next in alliance with the Greeks, then with Pyrrhus King of Epirus during his invasions of Italy; subsequently Rome gave law to all the little Grecian republics, and on the fall of the Eastern Empire, the Venetian republic afforded protection to, and claimed the sovereignty of, the islands; and the Senate of Venice decided on the following resolutions:—

1. That the governor sent by the republic should have supreme controul over the civil, the political, and military powers.

2. That the Venetian code of laws should replace the one in use by the Corcyreans.

3. That the island should be ready at all times to furnish a contingent number of troops for the service of Venice, whenever called for.

4. That the assembly of nobles should enjoy the right of the different employments, and of recommending persons to fill them: this, however, to be under the sanction of the governor-general.

5. That the Greek religion should retain all its benefices and lands, and exercise its various functions without molestation.

6. That the nobility and peasantry should remain in full enjoyment of their property and effects; and that they should have the right of arresting for debt, but not without a proper authority from the governor-general.

7. That the Venetian republic, in whatsoever case or circumstance, pledges its word never to surrender, or place the island of Corcyra in the hands of any foreign power; and that on all occasions the republic guarantee to protect Corcyra against any attempts from its enemies.

These were the principles articles decreed by the senate: an authenticated copy was delivered to the Corcyrean ambassadors, who, after six months absence, returned to their country, and gained the applause of the people by their successful mission. Before the ambassadors departed from Venice, they presented the senate, in the name of their compatriots, with a large proportion of the exchequer revenue, to assist in repairing and adding to the fortifications of the town of Corcyra, which the Venetians had informed them must be done. Marino Malapierre was dispatched by the republic to assume the title of governor of the newly acquired island: his reception on landing was attended by nearly the whole of its population, who loudly cheered him to the palace prepared for his reception.

The happy event was celebrated by great festivities and

public rejoicings. Malapierre's sage conduct restored the public tranquillity: the difficulties he encountered were surmounted by his skilful and conciliating treatment, nor had he recourse to any violence for that purpose, which he knew to be dangerous to a fresh domination. The republic's first measure was to lay 2 per cent. on all exports and importations, to defray the expenses of repairing the fortifications, and constructing others on a more modern plan. Malapierre likewise obliged several of the island nobility to surrender up the property of many individuals, from whom they had unjustly wrested it. The popularity he acquired in consequence was excessive; and Venice, not much pleased with it, sent two counsellors to overlook his administration under other pretences. Their office was, however, only to be annual, when fresh ones were dispatched.

In 1737-38, the Turks, who had commenced their efforts for the expulsion of the Venetians from the Morea and other provinces in European Turkey, besieged Corfu, which, notwithstanding repeated assaults, remained the chief of the Ionian Isles under the Republic of Venice, the fall of which beneath the aggrandizing conquests of the Gallic Republic, immediately affected the islands, which the French took possession of, but evacuated them on the breaking out of the war in 1798-99, when they were taken under the joint protection of Russia and Turkey; the former becoming, however, the sole protector.

A constitution was organized at St. Petersburgh, and afterwards promulgated in due form at Corfu, but which the septinsulars were far from being satisfied with, and by a secret agreement between Alexander and Napoleon, who had then his eyes on Turkey, the islands passed under the dominion of the latter. During the continental war, England took possession of several of the islands, and at the peace of 1815, the septinsular union was placed under the protection of Great Britain, with whom they have since remained. The

only document relating to these cessions which I can obtain at the Colonial office, is the following abstract of the treaties since 1699.

By the treaty of 1699, which was concluded at the Congress at Carlowitz in Sclavonia, between the Porte and Great Britain, and the States General on behalf of the Venetian Republic, it was agreed—

Article 1. That the Morea (with every thing thereunto belonging) then in the possession of the Republick, should remain under the dominion of the said Republick.

Art. 3. That Santa Maura, with its fortress and the head of the bridge Perania, not extending any further into the main land, and Leucate annexed to Santa Maura should remain in the possession of Venice.

Art. 7. That the Porte should not for the future exact any pension from the Republick of Venice, or its inhabitants for the Isle of Zante. This treaty was ratified by Venice on the 7th February, 1799.

By the treaty which was concluded at Passarowitz, in Servia, in 1718, between Venice and the Porte, under the mediation of Great Britain and the States General, and which terminated the war, expressly undertaken by the Porte for the purpose of wresting Santa Maura from the Venetians, it was agreed—

Art. 14. That the island of Cerigo should be restored to Venice.

Koch says that this treaty remained in force so long as the Republic of Venice existed. But it is sufficiently remarkable that the Morea remained in possession of the Turks, who had conquered that country during the war, and retained it under the *uti possidetis* condition on which the treaty was concluded, although no mention is made of the Morea in the treaty itself.

On the 16th of June, 1797, the French dispatched from Venice a flotilla which took possession of the Venetian is-

lands of Corfu, Zante, Cephalonia, Cerigo, and Santa Maura: and a few months afterwards by the treaty of Campo Formio (17th Oct. 1797.)

Art. 5. The Emperor of Germany consented that the French Republic should possess, in full sovereignty, the ancient Venetian islands of the Levant, viz.: Corfu, Zante, Cephalonia, Santa Maura, Cerigo, and other islands depending thereon, as well as Butrinto, Larta, Vonizza, and in general all the Venetian establishments in Albania, &c.

Towards the conclusion of the year 1798, the combined Russian and Turkish fleets sailed from Constantinople to expel the French from the Adriatic, and after having taken Cerigo, Zante, Cephalonia, and Santa Maura, conquered Corfu on the 1st March, 1799.

By the treaty which was concluded between Russia and the Porte a year afterwards, (21st March, 1800) for the purpose of regulating the political condition of 'the country originally subjected to the Republick of Venice,' it was agreed—

Art. 1. H. M. the Emperor of all the Russias considering that the aforesaid ancient Venetian islands, in consequence of their proximity to the Morea and Albania particularly affect *(intéressent particulièrement)* the security and tranquillity of the Ottoman States, it has been agreed, that the islands aforesaid should form a Republick, like that of Ragusa, under the Suzeraineté of the sublime Porte, as its vassal, &c.

Art. 2. In conformity with the preceding article, the islands of Corfu, Zante, Cephalonia, Santa Maura, Ithaca, Paxo, Cerigo, and all the islands great and small, inhabited and uninhabited, situated opposite the coasts of Morea and Albania, which have been detached from Venice, and have been recently conquered, *(viennent d'etre conquises)* being subjected to the sublime Porte, under the name of the Republick of the seven united islands, the said Republick and its subjects shall enjoy, &c.

Art. 7. Provides for the maintenance of the pre-existing

regulations touching the freedom of trading and navigating in the seas, in which the aforesaid islands are situated.

By the treaty of 5th November, 1815, between Russia, &c. and Great Britain, it was agreed—

Art. 1. That the island of Corfu, Cephalonia, Zante, Santa Maura, Ithaca, Cerigo, and Paxo, with their dependencies, such as they are described in the treaty between his Majesty the Emperor of all the Russias and the Ottoman Porte of the 21st of March, 1800, shall form a single, free, and independent state, under the denomination of the United States of the Ionian Islands.

By the Constitutional Charter of the Ionian States, as ratified in 1817, by his Majesty, it is provided—

Art. 1. The United States of the Ionian Islands are composed of Corfu, Zante, Santa Maura, Cephalonia, Ithaca, Cerigo, and Paxo, and the other smaller islands situated along the coast of Albania and Morea, which formerly belonged to the Venetian dominions.

In the act of ratification by the Porte, of the cession of the Ionian Islands, under date of 24th April, 1819, after recording the delivery of Parga, it is stated:—The islands of Corfu, Cephalonia, Zante, Santa Maura, Ithaca, Cerigo, and Paxo, known under the name of the Seven United Islands, as well as the small islands, partly inhabited and partly desert, which depend thereon, were likewise formerly under the sovereignty of the Sublime Porte, rendering tribute and receiving protection; but the vicissitudes of time have produced changes in this state of things, and these islands having fallen into the possession of Great Britain, have (with the exception of four districts, viz. Prevesa, Vonizza, Butrinto, and Parga, which are an integral part of the Turkish States) been placed under the immediate and exclusive protection of His Britannic Majesty, in conformity with the convention between the four great powers, solely relating to the said islands.

The act of ratification proceeds then to state, that the

Porte does acknowledge His Britannic Majesty as Sovereign Protector of these Islands, &c.

With the foregoing preliminary statements we may now proceed to examine each island, beginning with the seat of government,—

CORFU.

Corfu, an island situate at the mouth of the Adriatic, under the 39° of N. lat. and 20° of E. long., 150 miles N. of Santa Maura, and the present seat of government of the Septinsular Union, has been immortalized by Homer under the names *Scheria** (Σχερια) and (from Phæace the son of Neptune) *Phæacia:*

> 'Then swelled to sight *Phæacia's* dusky coast,
> And woody mountains, half in vapours lost;
> That lay before him, indistinct and vast,
> Like a broad shield amid the watery waste.'

It was however more early known as *Drepanum* (Δρεπανη) Callinach, or *Drepanon* (Δρεπανον), and Apollon, an epithet bestowed on it from its semicircular form or sickle shape, and connected with some mythological dreams. To this epithet succeeded the name of *Macri,* by reason of its length from cape to cape (Sidari to Leftineo). According to Apollonius, the title was derived from Macris, the daughter of Aristee: but among the Greeks and Romans its most usual designation was *Corcyra* (Κορκυρα); the term Corcyra owing its origin to Corcyra, the grand-daughter of Neptune, or derived from the Arabic word *Caçara,* signifying a land of peace and abundance; or from *Kekuris,* a peculiarly constructed ship

* *Scheria,* according to mythology, was a name given in consequence of the overflowing of the waves upon the banks of Epirus, covering a great space of territory. Ceres thereupon complained to Neptune, who arrested the waters; but not before they had separated a portion of land from the continent. It is also asserted that *Scheria* proceeds from the Phœnician word *schara* — commerce; indicating thereby that the inhabitants of this isle were skilled in maritime and commercial affairs.

which the inhabitants were famed for building. The present name of Corfu is said to be derived from κορυφη, or κορφοι, or κορυφω, to overtop; alluding to the hill, or turret-like rocks, on which the modern citadel is built, the name being given after the destruction of the Eastern Empire.

According to mythology, Phæace, the son of Neptune, was the first who established himself in the isle; and Plutarch says that Jason, on retiring from Colchis, bearing with him the golden fleece, touched at the island, and celebrated his nuptials with Medea, when Phæace was king; but of the Phæacian city not a vestige remains; the Corfiot antiquarians say that it occupied the site of Corcyra, the latter being built on the ruins of the former. Homer ascribes its first colonization to the Hyperians, who built a city and erected several temples to the gods. The successor to Phæace was said to be Alcinous, son of Nausithous, and then follows the story of Ulysses; but the history of the island commences with a greater appearance of truth where, according to Strabo, Archias, king of Corinth, in voyaging to Sicily, left Chersicrates, with a part of his army, at Corfu, then named *Scheria*. Chersicrates, it is said, made himself master of the place by conquering the inhabitants; this event took place in the 19th Olympiad, about 700 years before the siege of Troy. Certain it is that the Scherians or Corcyreans bore on their medals the winged horse, which was emblematical of Corinth. Chersicrates made war upon, and expelled, the Liburnians, who inhabited the southern part of the island; and the new sovereign commenced his reign in Crisopolis, which Homer makes Ulysses gaze at in wonder, by reason of its magnificent buildings and temples. It is said to have continued subject to the mother country (Corinth) for upwards of a century, but in the wars between Corinth and Athens, the Corcyreans sided with the latter; and, in imitation of them, abolished the monarchy, and founded a republic in its stead. It would appear that the Corcyreans maintained an amity with, but independence of, the several Greek powers; they furnished

their contingent of vessels and men to aid in repelling the attack of Xerxes; but when the fickle and ungenerous Athenians were excited against Themistocles, the Corcyreans gave him a hospitable shelter, and refused all heed to the dissimulation or threats of the Athenians for the delivery of this brave commander to their vengeful ire.

The battle of Leucadia would appear to have been a vigorous attempt on the part of Corinth, aided by the Thebans, Leucadians, Cephalonians, &c. to crush the Corcyreans, who, however, with the assistance of the Lacedæmonians and Athenians, almost totally destroyed the Corinthian fleet of 150 sail, under the command of Xenoclides. The engagement was fought by the Corinthians advancing in line, and being received by their opponents with 106 vessels, formed in three columns.

During the war between the different republics of Greece, the Corcyreans appear to have sided with the Athenians generally, and to have strenuously resisted the Lacedæmonians, who attempted the conquest of their island, whose nobility were in favour of the latter; the aristocracy were stoned to death in the temple of Juno, and the democracy of Corcyra revived. About this period Aristotle was compelled by the animosity of the Athenians to seek shelter in Corcyra, owing, it is said, to his infatuated love for a beautiful woman named Ermia, noted for her debaucheries; Cupid triumphed over the philosophy of the chief of the peripatetic sect to such an extent, that he ranked Ermia amongst the goddesses, celebrating her charms in his daily devotions, which so incensed the Athenians, who accused him of irreligion, that had not the amatory philosopher escaped, his life would very probably have paid the penalty of his love and impiety. Alexander of Macedon, being at this period on his travels along the coast of Epirus, hearing of Aristotle's fame, passed over to Corcyra, and was so pleased with the peripatetic as to offer him an asylum, and become his pupil.

A detached account of the subsequent history of the isle

would be out of place here; it is sufficient to state briefly the following events. Pyrrhus, king of Epirus, after several unsuccessful attempts, conquered the island, and made use of its fleet and marines in his attempts on Italy, which greatly weakened the Corcyreans, whose commerce was almost completely annihilated by Teuca, queen of the Illyrians, to whom it was subject in the century before our era, and to check whose cruelties the Corcyreans, now depraved and poor, were obliged to follow the example set them by the little Grecian republics, and place themselves under Roman protection.

The ambassadors sent by the Corcyreans to Rome were, it is said, received with friendship and caresses by the senate, who accepted their offer of becoming a province of the empire, and promised all the assistance needed. During the domination of Rome the Corcyreans were converted to Christianity, and appear to have sunk into a lesser degree of notoriety, though the weakness of the eastern empire enabled them once more to enjoy a government of their own choice.* At the close of the eleventh century, the naval power of Corfu seems to have been completely annihilated, as it was subdued by Robert Guiscard, A.D. 1081, without offering the slightest resistance; in a century and a half after, it was annexed to the principalities of Epirus† and Ætolia; and in the latter part of the thirteenth century, it appears to have been conquered by Charles of Anjou, king

* Corfu, although desolated by Genseric and his vandals in one century (A. D. 466), and by the Goths and Sclavonians in another (A. D. 550), was nevertheless still able to assist the Emperor Heraclius against the Lombards (A. D. 638), and Leo the Isaurian against the Saracens, during the siege of Constantinople (A. D. 717-18).

† In the middle of the twelfth century, the Corfiots aided the forces of the Emperor Emanuel Comnenus in driving out the Normans, to whom they had voluntarily yielded a short time before; and, at the close of the century, Corfu was annexed to the principality of Epirus and Ætolia, formed by Michael Angelus Comnenus at the division of the empire. (Gibbon xi., 247, 253).

of Naples, but the reverses sustained by his successors, encouraged the Corfiots to assert their freedom, when they drove out the Neapolitan garrison, and established a republican form of government.

The growing power of the Genoese had now alarmed Venice and the other Italian states; and the latter perceiving the advantage to be derived from Corcyra or Corfu, readily granted, on the 28th May, 1386, protection, as explained at p. 29[illegible] to the Corfiots, who, it is asserted by some, sold their island for 30,000 ducats to the Venetians; but it is more probable that the assertion is founded on the circumstance of Ladislas, king of Naples, having ceded his rights to Corfu in 1401, for 30,000 ducats.

Nothing of moment occurred until the growing power of the Turks in the Morea induced them to turn their attention to Corfu, as an acquisition that would be valuable. The fortress of Corfu was therefore besieged in 1537-38, by Janus Bey and Cheredin Barbarossa, with the arms and fleet of Soliman. Pesaro, who commanded at Corfu, aware of the danger he was exposed to, stripped the gallies of their guns, which latter he placed on the ramparts and outworks,—sent the useless mouths out of the fortress into the interior, and enrolled 4000 men under the orders of Venetian officers, the nobility forming a corps of themselves. Barbarossa and Janus landed their forces on the coast parallel to Potamos, encamping between that village and the town, and opened their batteries with such good effect that the Corfiots were driven from an eminence commanding the town. Several sorties were made, and the Mussulmans beheld winter approach without having gained any material advantage; while famine and plague made dreadful havoc in their camp, to reinforce which Soliman despatched 20,000 men, and followed them in person; but finding all hopes of conquest futile, he soon drew off the remnant of his shattered army.

Corfu remained unmolested until Achmet III. having entirely conquered the Morea, resolved on the capture of Corfu with a force of 80,000 men. The Venetians, although much

weakened by being stripped of all the provinces and islands belonging to European Turkey, prepared for a vigorous defence. Several citizens were allowed to purchase the order of nobility, and with the money thus obtained, a force of 12,000 men was fitted out under Count Schulemburgh, who strengthened the fortifications, and placed the garrison in an efficient state of defence. On the 15th July, 1716, Cogia Pasha, admiral of the Ottoman fleet, having 22 ships under his command, approached Corfu; he was met by the Venetian admirals Pisani and Cornari, whose force consisted of two parts, viz. Galleys and Galliots, under Pisani, and the ships under Cornari. Cogia was attacked and defeated by Pisani, and put into Butrinto to repair and embark the troops destined for the siege, a stray division of which disembarked at Vido, and opened a battery on the town and citadel of Corfu; the remainder landed below Potamos, and formed their camp about two miles from the extreme outworks of Fort Salvadore, which, together with Fort Abraham, was taken by the Ottoman after several hard fought contests. The Seraskier endeavoured to storm the citadel in a night attack; Schulemburgh made a counter sally with 2,000 resolute men, and took the Turks by surprise in the rear, who fled, leaving 4,000 dead in the trenches.

Among those who perished was Mouchtar Bey, the grandsire of the celebrated Ali Pasha of Yanina, who subsequently played such an important part in the affairs of Greece: Mouchtar fell just as he had scaled the ramparts, and his sword was preserved in the armoury at Corfu until its occupation by the French.

After several other unsuccessful attempts, the Turks raised the siege, with a loss of 15,000 men, 56 pieces of cannon, several mortars, all the camp equipage, provisions and the greater part of their baggage. The loss of the Venetians and Corfiots amounted to 3,000. Pisani and Cornari pursued the Turkish fleet, captured several of their vessels, took possession of Butrinto, and stormed Santa Maura, putting the whole of the Ottoman garrison to the sword. The Sultan

was so exasperated at the result that Admiral Cogia and the Seraskier commanding the land forces, expiated their loss by decapitation in the very audience hall at Constantinople. The Turks made several other attacks on the island, as did also the Genoese, but the Venetians, aided by troops and funds from Austria, maintained their sovereignty, which lasted nearly 400 years.

The fall of the Venetian republic was the prelude to the transfer of Corfu to the French republic, who took possession of the island in 1797, but were expelled by the Russian forces on the breaking out of the war in 1798-9, when Turkey and Russia, became its joint protectors. In 1807, the war which commenced between Russia and Turkey gave Ali the Pasha of Yanina a fair pretence for seizing the towns on the continent then belonging to the septinsular Union, or Ionian republic, and by cutting off the supplies, deprived the island of the means of resistance, when General Berthier, with a French force of 17,000 men, arrived at Corfu, and drove out the Russians, or as some say, occupied it under the connivance of Alexander; he was shortly after relieved by General Donzelot, who commanded until the arrival of the British in 1814, when Corfu surrendered to our arms on conditional terms.

On the evacuation of Corfu by the French under General Donzelot, Sir James Campbell assumed the civil and military command of the Ionian States.* General Campbell resigned the command to Sir Thomas Maitland, the Governor of Malta, who, in 1817, proclaimed the constitution, by which the Ionian Islands are now governed by a Lord High Commissioner, representing the protecting sovereign, a senate, consisting of ten members, (styled the most illustrious) with a president, (his highness) and a legislative assembly, (the most noble) composed of 29 deputies from the different islands—(See Government.)

* I should here state, that our present occupation of the Ionian Islands is mainly due to Brig.-Gen. Oswald and Lieut.-Col. (now Lieut.-Gen. Sir Hudson) Lowe, to whose proceedings I have adverted under the head of *Government.*

The constitution was in a great measure the work of Sir Thomas Maitland, and although not calculated to place much liberty in the power of the Ionians, was, perhaps, as much as in the circumstances of the times could with safety be granted, and quite as much as they knew how to enjoy without abuse; its greatest evil was that it intrusted too great power to the delegates of the government, whereby the administration takes its character from the individual rather than from the laws.

Considerable power rests with the Lord High Commissioner and his delegates; for instance, on a vacancy occurring in the legislature, the resident of the island submits a certain number of names to the *synditæ* or voters; these return three names back to the Lord High Commissioner, with whom rests the power of selection; in every thing connected with th government, where clearly not absolute, this is the system. is due to Sir Thomas Maitland to state that there is lit doubt he purposed further concessions as knowledge a vanced, more particularly trial by jury, and which it w Lord Nugent's intention, with certain modifications, to ado

In the year 1819, Parga was ceded to the authorities of t Porte, according to the treaty of Vienna in 1815, by whic the whole continent of Albania and Greece was placed unde Turkish rule, and although the Lord High Commissioner had nothing whatever to do with the treaty further than the execution of one of its articles, yet an unusual degree of abuse and vituperation was showered upon him on account of the measure: the fact was, in the stipulations of the treaty which placed Greece under the Porte, the ministers of the allied powers had totally forgotten, or rather were unaware of the existence of so insignificant a spot as Parga;* as it was Sir Thomas Maitland did all in his power to mitigate the misfortunes of the Parguinotes, and perhaps was the only individual who ever compelled Ali Pasha to adhere strictly to the terms of a treaty. In England the affairs of Parga became a party question, and endured all the misrepresentation atten-

* Lord Castlereagh stated it to be an island, and no individual in the House of Commons could contradict his lordship.

dant upon such matters.* Notwithstanding the care the government of the Lord High Commissioner had taken in returning members to the legislature subservient to his views, an unexpected opposition arose in the lower house, on an attempt to place an additional duty of five per cent. on the exportation of currants, the staple produce of some of the islands, and the Lord High Commissioner was obliged to withdraw the odious tax; although of very little importance, the circumstance is remarkable as being the first occasion on which the Legislative Assembly had shewn any thing like a free will, and as shewing how fully the Greeks entered into the spirit of the new constitution.

In Santa Maura this year (1819) a formidable insurrection broke out in consequence of the imposition of an unpopular tax; after some losses on both sides, the insurrection was suppressed through the able conduct of Sir Frederick Stovin, the President of the island. The ringleader, a priest, was executed, and the Lord High Commissioner was afterwards induced to mitigate the tax. There is little doubt this affair was raised by the opponents of the government to mask their own designs, and it may not be here irrelevant to observe, that from the commencement of Sir Thomas Maitland's administration, he had to contend with innumerable difficulties in this way, not the least of which was the susceptibility of the people to outrage, the islands having been so recently under the dominion of France and Russia, those powers had still the remains of parties in them who were partisans for the return of the islands under their protection, and therefore fanned the slightest feeling of discord into a flame.

Ali Pasha tended much to embarrass the government, and on matters being finally settled with him, the demon of intrigue sprung forth in the person of Count John Capo d'Istria, a native of Corfu, and some time minister of Russia. Just prior to the revolution breaking forth in Continental Greece, a third party was formed, denominating itself the national

* Sir Hudson Lowe was justly opposed to the cession of Parga, as also of the highly important post of Previsa, which, in our occupation, would have given us the command of the Gulf of Arta.

party, and proposing a union with Greece, of whose intended proceedings in the revolution they had long been cognizant. It may readily be imagined the two first parties did every thing possible to render the British government odious; in this they were cordially joined by the latter, or Greek party. Thus matters stood when the revolution in Greece commenced. Simultaneously with it, every effort was set on foot by the discontented to induce the peasantry to act. It must be remembered the population of the island was an armed population; pistols and a dagger, and frequently a long gun, forming part of the national costume. As regarded Great Britain, reports of the intentions of it as a power, of the most inflammatory nature, were set on foot. The proceedings on the Continent had gradually assumed a formidable aspect, and various successes attended the first movements of the Greeks. On this Count Metaxa, and some of the younger branches of the best Cephaloniste families, at once proclaimed the Greek cause as their own, and commenced the formation of a body of men, in spite of the previous proclamations of neutrality; these joined the insurgents, giving out they were sent by Great Britain, their leaders being attired in the British uniform: the head of the clergy also gave countenance to the business. Two Cephaloniste captains of vessels, Pannis and Kalvin, joined the fleet of the insurgent Greeks under British colours, although at this very time the Greek fleet was landing men and plundering the peasantry of provisions, &c. wherever unprotected. All this the Ionian government bore with exemplary patience, the Cephalonistes even having been allowed to depart unmolested. At length the Turks commenced the work of retaliation, and in one night the shores of the islands of Zante and Cephalonia were covered with a multitude of refugees from the Morea, principally women and children, who, however, were received with every consideration by the government. A small Turkish garrison at Napoli di Malvasia having capitulated to the Greeks, on condition of being conveyed to the nearest neutral port, the greatest part consisting of old men, women and children, upwards of 85 in number, were landed

on a retired district of the island of Cerigo, and shewn to a cave as a place of security. During the night the peasantry of the surrounding country assembled and murdered every soul, with enormities the most disgraceful to human nature. Nearly at the same period, a Turkish brig of war was driven on shore at Zante by the insurgent fleet. The peasantry of the island at once assembled for the double purpose of plunder and murder; and on a British officer being sent with a small party of military to enforce the quarantine laws, these people commenced a heavy fusilade upon them. A wounded soldier falling into their hands, they barbarously put him to death, nailing him to the earth with his own bayonet. At these proceedings the Lord High Commissioner was justly incensed, and, without hesitation, put forth the vigour of his government; the property of Metaxa was confiscated, the insurgent bishop removed from his diocese to Corfu, the two captains declared pirates, and a proclamation was issued declaring the strictest neutrality; denouncing any individual joining the parties in rebellion out of the protection of the British government; the islands were placed under martial law; the inhabitants successively deprived of their arms; the ringleaders in the Zante affair, and five of the Cerigo murderers, executed and hung in chains. These measures restored the islands to tranquillity. Their severity has been censured, but there is little doubt they were the means of preventing the further effusion of blood.

In 1822 an act passed the legislature, declaring the coin of Great Britain the currency of the Ionian States, thus putting an end to the rubbish from Venice and other places, which had long disgraced the Ionian States. Kalamos, a small island dependent upon Santa Maura, was provided for the refugees from the Continent, now increased to vast numbers, where they were provisioned at the expense of the Government, and the island placed in communication with Greece, so as to allow free intercourse with their families. The Suliotes, also, who were reduced to capitulation by the Pasha of Albania, were received in boats, under the protection of British men-of-war, and domiciled at Corfu. Through the

munificence of the Earl of Guilford, a University was established at Corfu in the old Venetian Palace, his Lordship taking upon himself the office of Chancellor, with several eminent scholars as Professors, amongst whom was the learned Vamvas. Schools on the Lancastrian system had for some time been in operation throughout the islands. In the following year much discussion took place relative to the payment of the British forces in the islands, necessary for the different garrisons, one of the stipulations of the treaty of Vienna having been to that effect. The islands hitherto had not been able to fulfil any part of this. As some compromise, Sir Thomas Maitland undertook the payment of the staff of the garrison, and the execution of some necessary fortifications in Corfu; before, however, any of the last measures took place, Sir T. Maitland suddenly expired of apoplexy at his government of Malta.

On the death of Sir Thomas Maitland, the governments of Malta and the Ionian Islands, which had been previously combined, were separated, and Sir Frederick Adam was appointed Lord High Commissioner of the States. So clear a course had been marked out by Sir Thomas Maitland, that scarcely anything was left for his successor; and Sir Frederick Adam, who had long served in the Ionian Islands adopted on most points the same line of policy.

From Sir Frederick Adam's long residence and connection with Corfu, the other islands viewed with much dissatisfaction the sums of money expended in beautifying that island, and in the repairs of the fortifications, which, at length, the British government insisted upon being carried into effect; added to this, the higher classes were again pushed forward, and the system of gradually improving the condition of the peasantry was lost sight of;—in consequence the tyranny and exaction of former times was renewed in some measure; the purity of the laws forgotten; and Cephalonia, in some respects one of the most important of the islands, was thrown into confusion. Sir Frederick Adam, although an officer of high talent, manifested little discrimination in financial affairs; the people about him were deficient in every thing

relative to civil government; the finances sunk—education was neglected—the university abandoned—and there was a lavish expenditure in palaces, &c. The government of Lord Nugent, who succeeded Sir F. Adam, has been misrepresented, and, I think, unfairly attacked. Lord Nugent is known as a liberal minded nobleman of great natural talent, superadded to an excellently cultivated mind, whose faculties have been long employed in studying the character of nations, and assisting in measures conducive to the welfare of his fellow creatures. I have carefully examined the charges made against Lord Nugent in the public press and by *brochures*, and do not think them capable of substantiation. As I shall advert to them in different places, I can here but briefly recapitulate some of his Lordship's acts. He found the currant growers generally in the hands of commission agents, who were also money lenders, and who, as Colonel Napier describes, exacted usurious interest from the cultivators of the soil, the produce of which was reduced to a ruinous price. Money was advanced to the necessitous peasant at 15, 20, or 25 per cent., his crop was often mortgaged before even the currant blossom had appeared, and from year to year he was unable to get out of the fangs of the money-dealer. The measure which Lord Nugent adopted was wise and beneficent; he found a considerable sum of money lying idle in the treasury:* this was lent out at six per cent. to the impoverished cultivators, on the same security as the commission agents required, namely, the growing crops: the benefit was almost instantaneous; the rate of private interest was generally reduced; the prices of the produce became remunerative to the farmer (see Commerce), and the revenue of the State increased (see Finance), while be it remembered that the government not only suffered no loss (on the contrary, six per cent. was acquired for the unproductive funds), but it was not even obliged to detain a single lb. of currants for non-payment of the loans thus humanely and judiciously made. This was the step which brought on Lord Nugent the ire of the money-dealers, who have erroneously

* The pension fund not used as has been alleged.

accused him of introducing a bill called the *Collegetto*, and which went to fix a minimum price for currants, and to require all small growers to deposit their fruit in certain warehouses. The *Collegetto* bill was introduced to the legislative assembly *against the repeated and urgent persuasions of Lord Nugent*,* who declared that if the legislative assembly passed a bill so inimical to freedom of trade, he hoped the senate would reject it; but if not, his Lordship would use the prerogative vested in him, and put a *veto* on its adoption; his Lordship added, '*that so strong was his objection to such a measure, that were it not for the danger of creating a rather unconstitutional precedent which would interfere with the freedom of debate, he would take his seat in the legislative assembly, and address the members against the bill;*' and yet the main charge made against Lord Nugent in this country, is his proposed adoption of this bill. The other allegations against his Lordship may as readily be disposed of. He *did not cancel* Sir T. Maitland's enactment against wearing arms, he merely modified its severity, a severity which defeated the object in view, death being one of the chief penalties for carrying a gun, or sabre, or knife, under certain circumstances. In places like the Ionian islands, the ill disposed can always conceal arms, while the well disposed were left without protection. Lord Nugent, with the consent of the assembly, merely granted licenses to reputable citizens to have registered arms in their houses, restricting the privilege to those so licensed. In order to avoid the chance of partiality, his Lordship so arranged that a Corfiot judge should preside at Cephalonia, and *vice versa*;† yet the *very reverse* was alleged against him. In conformity with the constitutional charter, and in unison with the dictates of common humanity, Lord Nugent enacted, that after two years expiration the proceedings of the law courts, &c., should be in the language of the country, that a man should not be tried for his life in a foreign tongue (the Italian), of which he

* The bill was introduced by Mr. Plasse, at the suggestion of Sir D. Bulzo.

† Now only one instance remains to the contrary, in the person of one of the judges who was continued at Zante, Signior Cuzola, a most intelligent and upright functionary.

knew nothing; and for the purpose of bringing about so desirable a change, the type of the Gazette was changed from *all* Italian, into half Romaic Greek and half Italian; in this case also the very opposite has been alleged against his Lordship. Other circumstances will be particularized in the following pages (see Education, Population, Laws, &c.), the foregoing will, I trust, sufficiently shew what the charges were against Lord Nugent's administration; and the Government will perform an act of simple justice to his Lordship, by either replacing him at the Ionian islands (where he obtained the affections of the people), or in some other post where his active mind may be employed for the benefit of his country. Sir Howard Douglas, the present Lord High Commissioner, has been too short a time in office to speak about.

GEOGRAPHY AND PHYSICAL ASPECT.—The island of Corfu, in the parallel of 39.30 N. lat., and the meridian of 19.50 E. long., is situated a little to the eastward of the mouth of the Adriatic; the capital being distant from Otranto about 30 leagues, and 200 from Venice. It stretches from N. to S. in the form of a semicircle. On the N. and W. it is bounded by the Mediterranean, and on the N. and E. by the channel which separates it from Albania, or the ancient Epirus. This channel, which runs nearly S. E. and N. W., is about 21 geographical miles in length; at its narrowest or northerly entrance, at Cape Karagol, it is not two miles across; at the southerly, between Cape Bianco and Gomenizza, it is about seven miles broad; and at its widest part, in the neighbourhood of the town of Corfu, it does not much exceed 10 miles in breadth. The depth of the water, in the deepest parts, varies from 40 to 50 fathoms.

The length of the island of Corfu is about 35 geographical miles; its breadth, at the north-eastern extremity, about 12; from whence it gradually lessens until it terminates in its most southerly point, or Cape Bianco. The number of square leagues are about 80, of 25 to a degree.*

* These measurements are derived from the Bureau of the French engineers, as given by Theotky, and by Dr. Hennen in the work to which I have referred to under Malta; but by some the estimate is 120 miles in

The island is divided into four district or bailiwicks: 1st. *Oros*, the mountainous district, which lies to the north-west, and contains Cassopo, the ancient Cassiope, famous for a temple of Jupiter.

2d. *Agiru*, the beautiful district situated between the western and southern parts of the island, remarkable for its fertility.

3rd. *Mezzo*, or the midland district, in which is situated the city of Corfu.

4th. *Lefchimo*, which lies to the south-east, and is so called from the ancient Cape Leucimna, now Cape Bianco.

The aspect of Corfu is decidedly mountainous, particularly towards the Mediterranean, the part opposite the Albanian coast being of less elevation, and presenting a hilly and sloping country. A chain of mountains runs throughout the whole length of the island from N. to S., the highest point Santa Dacca—being estimated at 2,000 feet above the sea: another range runs from E. to W. across the island, appearing like a continuation of the Albanian or Acroceraunian range prolonged from Corfu to the main land. The highest point of this cross chain now called St. Salvador, or Παντοκρατωρ, the *Phœacia*, according to some, or as others think, the *Istone* of Antiquity, is supposed to be from 2,800 to 3,000, or even 3,500 feet; the view from its summit is magnificent, embracing a vast extent of the Acroceraunian mountains, and even those of Macedonia, the Adriatic sea to the northward, and the Mediterranean to the southward; and in clear weather the continent of Italy itself is visible.

The cross chain is of a rugged character, with many minor collateral offsets in a N. and N. W. direction. Viewed from the shore, or from a vessel in mid channel, the mountains appear to form a boundary, like an amphitheatre, to the bay where Corfu city stands, while on the N. W. of the bay the shore rises abruptly, and here and there dotted with olive groves and wild looking straggling villages: on the opposite side of the bay the snow capt mountains of Albania, with the ancient *Buth-*

circuit, 60 miles long, and breadth varying from 35 miles to 5 at its southern extremity.

rotum at their feet, rises in towering magnificence; the combination of forest, sea, lake, and mountain presenting one of those splendid panoramas on which the eye loves to dwell, and reminding the spectator of the voyage of Æneas—

'Protinus aërias Phæacum abscondimus arces,
Litoraque Epiri legimus, portuque subimus
Chaonio, et celsam Buthroti ascendimus urbem.'—ÆNEID, *lib. iii.*—291.

There are three islands in the harbour of Corfu, which are of a horse shoe shape, extending from the promontory of Cape Mandrachi to Cape Karagot; situated between these Capes and thus forming a road for shipping, and a defence, is Vido (the *Ptychia* of the ancients) the largest, 2½ miles in circumference, and 1 mile distant from the town; it is protected by five forts, and garrisoned by a company of British troops; Candilonipos is a mere rock within cannon shot of Vido, and St. Demetrius or Quarantine Island is about 2 miles E. of Vido, and 1½ from the mouth of the Govino harbour or bay, which latter has a narrow entrance, defended by a battery; Govino bay is surrounded on all sides from the wind by mountains and hills, and may be considered the chief naval station of the islands.

To the N. E. of Cape Sidero is a small island or rather rock, named Fano, which is supposed to have been the residence of Calypso. After passing Cape Sidero, the coast extends to the distance of 20 miles to St. Angelo; beyond this Cape are some fortified rocks called *Smadrachi;* the shore then ranges without any remarkable point as far Gardiki, and so on to Cape Bianco, a conical cliff rising from the sea, and known by the name of Lefchimo, from λευχείμων, signifying whiteness; it is the southernmost point of Corfu.

The city of Corfu, which the inhabitants say was founded by Æneas as a rival to the ancient Phæacia, is built on an irregular promontory, sloping to the N.W., which juts out nearly from the central part of the island on its eastern shore; the promontory being compared to a triangle, having its base united to the island, and its apex towards Albania, with a semicircular bay on either side.

The citadel, or old fort, is built at the very extremity of the triangle.* It is remarkable for two rocky eminences, 'aërias arces' of Virgil, which add greatly to the natural beauty of the scene. The triangular promontory was by nature peninsular, but it has been completely separated from the main land by a military work or ditch, about 150 yards in length, 80 in breadth, and 40 deep. The sea enters freely at the northern mouth of this ditch; but at its southern end there is a wall which cuts off the communication. The communication with the esplanade is by a drawbridge. Within the citadel, whose circumference is 180 yards, are the old palace, an armory (now used as an English chapel and school), barrack, artillery stores, an hospital, several houses, formerly private property, but now chiefly occupied by officers connected with the government or the army, and one or two churches of the Greek religion. No regular plan is observed in these buildings, except the barracks and the palace; all the others are placed either by chance, or where a level surface presented itself to found them upon.

The palace has some appearance of a regular front; it is immediately opposite the drawbridge. The barracks are on the northern aspect of the citadel.

The esplanade commences at the ditch which insulates the citadel; it is a piece of ground, extending in length from shore to shore, about 450 yards. It is not quite level, but slopes in a very gradual manner from the southern to the northern shore. It is perfectly free from buildings on the southern side; on the northern are situated the new palace and the old hospital. The breadth of the esplanade from E. to W., or from the ditch of the citadel to the commencement of the town, is about 180 yards. One small Greek church projects somewhat beyond the line of the houses of the town, and is the only solid building that can be said at all to encroach on it. This open space forms the parade for the troops; and has of late been much improved by levelling and ornamental planting, and by the erection of a very elegant

* Hennen's Medical Topography, page 171.

fountain over a tank, situated towards its southern extremity. The situation is beautiful; looking from the town, the citadel is in front, the mountains of Albania in the distance, and the sea on either hand. A carriage drive has been formed round it, and it has become a place of common resort for the inhabitants and the garrison, for their walks and rides.

The circumference of the town, exclusive of the esplanade, is 2,800 yards; its greatest length from the esplanade to the spilea, or sea-gate, is 550 yards, and it is separated from the rest of the island, by a strong double circumvallation, which bounds it on the western direction; the northern and southern boundaries consist of a single line wall, along the margin of the sea.

At the extremity of the town is the new fort, built at the latter end of the sixteenth century, but commanded by Mount Abraham, a hill at a small distance from the walls. Towards the land side are chains of outworks and forts extending from the city to Lake Chalichiopolo; in addition to, and beyond these, the French constructed strong lines defended by bastions and redoubts, at intervals with a deep wet ditch extending from the suburb of Castrades almost across the Isthmus, in constructing which the French lost 500 men from sickness. The works are very strong, mined, and provided with every thing necessary for defence, but it would require 10,000 soldiers to man them.

Corfu city, especially on its flanks, is quite a labyrinth. In the centre, or nearly opposite the entrance to the citadel, there is a range of tolerably good-looking houses, with piazzas, having an eastern aspect; from behind these, two or three principal streets, and as many of a secondary character, run from E. to W.; these are irregularly crossed by streets and lanes; narrow, straggling, and following no precise direction; being built, apparently, as the natural form of the ground admitted. In these irregular passages, the gables of some of the houses and the fronts of others are intermixed; some are approachable by steps, artifically formed, and others by ledges of the rock, which, by time and a little manual labour, are

converted into rude stairs. Formerly, outside staircases projected from almost all the houses; but of late, these incumbrances have been removed, and very few are now to be met with in the more frequented streets. Some respectable houses are scattered here and there through the town, and on the line wall facing the harbour; but the generality of the habitations are of a very ordinary character, consisting of two or three stories, each containing a large hall and a few apartments leading off from it. The floors are almost all of wood, and the stairs, in general, are of the same materials.*

The number of religious edifices is very considerable, but the metropolitan church of the Greeks possesses a great treasure in the body of St. Spiridione, patron of the island, whose flesh, it is said, yields to the touch, though he has been dead many hundred years. The Corfiots say that the Venetians made several attempts to remove the body to Venice, but the Saint always frustrated their evil design. The interior of the church is decorated with chandeliers, lamps, candelabras, &c. of pure gold and silver, according to the taste of the various devout offerers. The Senate House is a plain, square building, in which also the courts of law are held. The palace of St. Michael and St. George, occupying one side of the Esplanade, along which its front extends, is built of Malta stone, and ornamented with a colonnade of fluted Doric. On the W. side is a line of uniformly built houses, arched and pilastered so as to form a fine combination with the palace, the whole being nearly a parallelogram, two sides of which are built and the other open, with grounds tastefully laid out in the centre. The theatre was originally built for an exchange, and, with the other public buildings, does not require notice.

Rivers.—There are, strictly speaking, none. Of the three or four streamlets in the island, that called Potamos, 'the river,' by way of pre-eminence, is nearest to the city; it rises in the chain of mountains running N. and S., near a point called 'Sinarades,' and it discharges itself into the harbour,

* Hennen, page 173.

at about two miles N. W. of the city: from its origin to its mouth, not including its windings, it is only five miles: its depth, at its mouth, is four feet in the deepest part, its width fifty.

Stavro Potamos is a sort of water-course, of about the same length as 'Potamos.' It commences in the marshy valley of Gaiderana, and opens into the bay near Ipso, at about 10 or 12 miles from the city, in a N. W. direction.

A stream, considerably larger than either, called Tifflo Potamos, discharges itself into the Mediterranean, near Sidari. In the southern part of the island, about 12 miles from the city, is situated the Mesongi, which rises in the mountains of Matia, near Gardichi, and discharges itself into the channel which separates the island from Albania. Round the whole island many streams also run from the marshy vallies.

Fountains.—The two most classical and most copious are now called the Fountains of Cressida, supposed to be nearly upon the spot where Homer places the scene of the interview between Nausicaä and Ulysses. At 30 paces from its source one of these streams turns a mill.

At the distance of about two miles, in an easterly direction from the town, is the usual watering-place for the shipping, called Cardachio; and at about six miles still further to the E., is Benizze, where so copious is the stream and so precipitous the descent, that many mills have been erected on its banks. Besides these, many minor springs of excellent water are dispersed over the island.

Lakes and Marshes (fresh-water)—are to be found in all directions in the environs of the harbour, and amid the vallies of the more distant hills. Some of them have their sluggish and miry outlets, which are more or less choked with reeds and other aquatic plants. The majority of these are capable of being drained at a very small expense, and becoming fertile soil. Where the slightest attention is paid to them their edges become dry and solid; and, even while left in a state of nature, they are, by the annual process of vegetable growth

and decay, aided by alluvial depositions, gradually undergoing a change, so that they are in various states of progress, from navigable lakes, to solid ground capable of cultivation, and of throwing up the richest crops.

Of the larger class of lakes or marshes, the Val di Roppa is the most remarkable. It lies about seven miles from Corfu, in a N. W. direction. Its extent has been variously estimated, some stating it to be five miles long by one broad, and others at eight miles long and three broad. Perhaps the difference may be reconciled by supposing the former measurement to refer solely to the marshy part of the valley, and the latter to its whole circumference. The size of the marsh of course varies according to the season.

The Val di Roppa bears marks of cultivation, except in its very centre, and, in fact, it yields rich crops of corn, rice, and grapes; but in the depth of winter it is almost an entire sheet of water. It discharges its contents, by a small stream, into a little bay on the Mediterranean side, named Ermones. The situation is extremely beautiful, and the irregularity of the surrounding rocks, in some places, renders it even picturesque.

It is the great resort of the garrison sportsmen, on account of the immense quantity of snipe and other water fowl with which it abounds.

There is another small marsh at the N. end of the Val di Roppa, named the Val di Gaiderana. It is of the same general character; but it empties its waters by a small watercourse, or fiumare, called Stavro Potamos, into the bay of Chiefalo Ipso, as already stated.

In all the bays of Corfu, as well as of the other Greek islands, the adjacent vallies are more or less swampy, and so continue until they approach the mountains which form their back-ground. Dr. Hennen, to whom I am indebted for the foregoing details, states, on the authority of the late Sir Thomas Maitland, that the troops which were encamped, during the period of the plague, between the beach and the swamp, were invariably less healthy than those which were

encamped between the swamp and the mountain; and he shrewdly enquires, Did the admixture of the fresh and salt water, render the exhalations from the beach more unhealthy?

Of Salt-Water Lakes—the principal is at Govino, the old Venetian harbour, which is screened by surrounding hills from almost every wind, and about five miles to the N.W. of the citadel. It is rapidly filling up with sand and mud, and a number of marshy spots are found along its banks. The entrance is very narrow, and is growing narrower annually, so that large ships can no longer enter. In 1779, when the Ionian republic was under the protection of the two nations, a Russian and an Ottoman squadron anchored there. In February, 1822, Dr. Hennen made a survey of it, in a small pleasure yacht of less than 50 tons burthen, and frequently came in close contact with the mud. It is from three to four miles in circumference, not including its muddy banks. The Venetians had their docks here, and the ditches and some traces of these works are still to be seen. The neighbourhood is reckoned extremely unhealthy.

At the north-westerly extremity of Lefchimo district, there is a large salt-water lake called Corissia: the outlet is narrow, through which it discharges its waters into the Mediterranean, and the banks are very marshy, and overgrown with reeds and other aquatic plants. Lake Calachiopulo, not more than a mile in a direct line from the works, may be estimated at from three to four miles in circuit, but taking the marshy spots about its edges, at from eight to nine miles.

This lake is celebrated by Homer as the harbour of the ancient Phæacians, and the little island at its entrance is the ship which, on its return from Ithaca, after having conveyed Ulysses thither, was turned into a rock. On its banks were situated the Gardens of Alcinous; such is the poet's tale. In latter times, the lake, its fishery and salt-pans, were the property of Government; but, in the time of the French, they exchanged it for the island of Vido, the key of the harbour on which they wished to erect some works. Having passed

into the hands of a Corfiot noble, it has since been called by his name, Calachiopulo. It is also occasionally called the Pesciera, on account of its fishery. This lake is filling up rapidly: it is only navigable by a monoxylan (or boat composed of one piece of wood, and capable of conveying only one person comfortably) throughout the greater part of its extent. At its mouth, however, there is a large ferry-boat, which is polled and rowed across for the conveyance of passengers. On its edges there were formerly extensive salt-pans, which were worked so recently as 1805, although gradually diminishing in profit; but so little did they yield that year, that they have been let for agricultural purposes, and are now in a rapid state of drainage and cultivation.

Salines.—Besides the salt-pans just noticed, there is a very extensive one in the Lefchimo district, at the Pianura di Lefchimo, near the southern extremity of the island, and opening upon the channel about thirteen miles from the Citadel.

To the north-west, at not more than two miles distant, are the salt-pans of Potamo; and there are some smaller to the south of the town, on the opposite side of the Bay of Castrates.

Canals there are none, but there is a work which was cut by the French with the view of strengthening their position in the town of Corfu, by forming a fortified communication from the lake of Calachiopulo to the bay of Castrades, which Dr. Hennen has ranked under the head of 'Canals.'

This work was commenced some time in 1810; but when the French evacuated the island on the 14th of July, 1814, it was not half finished, although fatigue parties of 2000 men daily, furnished by an army of upwards of 10,000, had been at work on it for such a considerable time.

This ditch is cut with salient and re-entering angles, &c., after the manner of a regular fortified line, along the bottom of the promontory of Monte Ascensione, the eastern boundary of Calachiopulo; it communicated with the lake of Calachio-

pulo; but the communication was never so opened, as to allow of a free flow of the waters from one to the other; at present it is nearly cut off, especially in summer. The French did not remain long enough to achieve the communication with the sea at Castrades. The whole extent of the ditch, as it was left by them, beginning from Castrades, at the distance of 375 English yards from the sea-side, and following it along its whole line to the end behind Fort St. Salvador, was 996 French toises of nine feet each. Its breadth, at present, varies from 28 to 60 English feet; in some of the intermediate points it is 24 feet broad; in others, 45½ feet. Its depth of water varies from three to nine English feet.

The banks slope in an acute angle, and as the soil is very loose and covered with rank vegetation, materials for putrefaction are constantly falling down their sides, but more particularly in rainy weather. Myriads of insects and animalculæ live and perish in the ditch; and in addition, the inhabitants threw all their filth and carrion into it; so that it became, in the autumnal season, highly offensive.*

Dr. Hennen records it for the honour of human nature, that when the French gave over Corfu to the English, their commander, General Denzelot, forewarned the British general (the late Sir James Campbell) of the unhealthiness of the spot, which happened to be the very first our troops occupied, and the truth of this representation was found but too evident.

In consequence of the acknowledged unhealthiness of these ditches, the government came to a determination to fill them up if possible; and on the 16th of July, 1819, a proclamation was issued to the following effect, viz.—'That the whole of the inhabitants, *en masse*, of the districts to the south, east, west, and north, residing within the distance of ten miles of the suburb of Castrades, with exception of the aged, the

* The French lost 2,000 men in cutting this ditch; they were quartered in wooden barracks in the neighbourhood.

infirm, the poor, women and children, should give one day's labour weekly, within their respective districts, in such rotation as should be fixed upon by the municipal council; for the purpose of filling with earth all and every part of the suburb which was found actually covered with water, including the whole of the ditches and canals upon which the French engineers erected fortifications.' The proprietors of these grounds were authorized to be repossessed of them, upon producing their lawful claims before the competent authorities.

In consequence, nearly the whole of that branch which extended from the back of St. Salvador to its communication with Calachiopulo (or 456 French toises) was filled up, though not completely, for it still contains much mud and water. The work of filling lasted forty days, during which 9,368 peasants were employed, or 234 daily.

Geology and Soil.—The mountains of Corfu are composed chiefly of a compact limestone, destitute of any organic remains, but with occasional strata of flint, precisely similar to the Albanian mountains. In some places carbonate of lime alternates with strata of vegetable earth; and it is often met with tinged with the oxide of iron, and presenting on its surface, when fractured, beautiful arborescences. Fibrous, crystallized, and granular gypsum abounds principally, disseminated in argillaceous deposits; breccia in immense masses, either purely calcareous or with a mixture of silex, is to be met in various parts of the island; in some spots carbonate of lime is mixed with nodules of sulphur, or with coarse jasper: and Dr. Benza, in one spot, found the rare mineral, dolomite. There is a quarry of white marble under the western peak of St. Salvador, of a very fine grain, and well adapted to statuary; and variegated marble is found in small masses widely scattered. The substance known on the Continent as alabaster of Corfu, is a fine gypsum. The lesser hills consist mostly of an argillaceous soil, mixed with lime, which clay, indeed, forms the substratum to all the low

and cultivated lands in the island, which are, principally, a stiff tenacious clay, very retentive of moisture, and extremely productive.

The island is not apparently of volcanic production, but would appear to have been separated from the main land by some violent convulsion of nature. Earthquakes, however, are not uncommon at Corfu, and are supposed to originate in the island itself, and not to be shocks in relation to other earthquakes; they generally run from N. W. to S. E., and are slight; but in 1745, one shock was so severe as to destroy the palace, bishop's house, and many other buildings. In May, 1819, a severe shock in the interior of the island, stopped a copious spring. The great earthquake which lately damaged Santa Maura and Zante, was not felt at Corfu.

CLIMATE.—The climate of Corfu is nearly tropical, and the animal sensations are influenced more by the winds than by the alternations of the mercury in the thermometer. On an average of four years, the thermometer ranged from 44° to 91°; the general annual average of rainy days for the four years being 96¾. It appears there is not a month in the year in which rain does not fall for a greater or less number of days, but November and December, February and March, are the most rainy.

Snow very seldom falls in the Island of Corfu, and when it does it soon melts. Sometimes the summit of St. Salvador is covered in patches, which continues for ten or twelve days. On the Albanian mountains the snow begins to fall, generally speaking, about the end of November, and continues till May.

Botta* asserts, that in his time the maximum of heat of different years did not vary more than 3° or 4°, but that the minimum of cold often varied 6°, 8, or 10°. Mr. Starkie's tables contradict this. In four years the lowest degree of cold stood 45°, 46°, 46°, 44°, or only 2° in difference, while

* 'Storia Naturale e Medica dell' Isola di Corfu,' Milano, Anno vii. 12mo.

the highest degrees of heat were, for the same four years, 89°, 90°, 91°, 85°, or 5° of difference.

Winds.—It is difficult in Corfu to ascertain the quarter whence the wind blows; on enquiring of a sailor the answer will be 'I cannot say what it is outside.' When a cloud rises from St. Salvador summit, it is generally succeeded by a a N.W. wind, scattering the fogs and vapours, as described by Homer,—

> 'The low-hung vapours, motionless and still,
> Rest on the summit of the shaded hill;
> Till the mass scatters as the winds arise,
> Dispersed and broken through the ruffled skies.'
>
> ILIAD, *5th Book.*

Dr. Hennen thinks that these peculiarities of the winds of Corfu depend upon the local situation of the island. The usual remark of the Corfiots is, that their country forms one side of a funnel, very narrow and winding at the mouth, dilated in the middle, and again contracted at the extremity. Two somewhat transverse funnels lie at the extremities of the longitudinal one formed by the channel which divides Corfu from the main land of Greece. The first and largest of these is that extremity of the Adriatic which runs from Durazzo to the straits of Otranto, and lies to the northward; violent eddy winds blow along the coast of this great inland sea, but without observing any fixed or regular periods. The second is formed by the more distant gulfs of Arta and Prevesa,* which lie to the southward. An easterly breeze commences in them, with daily regularity, soon after sunrise, and continues till near noon. At about three in the afternoon it is succeded by a westerly wind, which continues till night; and so regular is this alternation, that it requires a strong gale in the Mediterranean high seas to interrupt it: the current also follows this change of winds, and both are sensibly felt as far down as to the westward of Paxo, and far beyond the southern extremity of Corfu. The eastern boun-

* The gulf of Prevesa is that portion of sea which lies between Santa Maura and Paxo.

dary of the Channel of Corfu is formed of lofty and precipitous mountains, covered for more than half the year with snow; the breaks and gullies in these mountains give a direction to the winds corresponding to that particular point upon which they strike. This, of course, must vary as the angle of incidence may vary, and the effect is uniform only in one particular, viz. the cold communicated by the snow to the passing column of air.

From all these peculiar inflections of the wind, nothing is more common than to see vessels steering different courses in the channel, with the breeze 'right aft' for each. Thus it often happens that a ship is coming through the north channel, and another through the south, both before the wind, while in mid-channel it is either a perfect calm, or the wind is veering all round the compass. These currents of wind do not appear to extend to any great height, for the shipping often feel the breeze, while the flag at the citadel, at about 120 feet above the level of the sea, is lying motionless on the flag-staff.

The most frequent winds of winter and autumn, as felt in the town of Corfu are E., E.S.E., S., and S.E. In spring and summer they are most prevalent from the N., N.N.E. N.E., and E.N.E. They rarely blow with violence for more than three or four days; but they often continue in the same point for a longer period: all those from a northerly point, sweeping over the mountains of Epirus, are cold; all those from a southerly point are oppressively hot, accompanied with mist and rain.

The peculiar characters of the winds felt at Corfu have been thus accurately described by Baron Theotoky, after a philosophical observation of several years duration; I give it as an incentive to the preparation of similar meteorological registers in other parts of the globe.

East.—This is a brisk, pleasant, and refreshing, but variable wind; it is rarely accompanied with rain. In winter it is sometimes sharp and violent; it often precedes fine weather.

East and by South.—Is not so dry in summer, nor so piercing in winter as the preceding.

East-South-East.—Is light, fresh, and elastic in summer, and tolerably mild in winter. An abundant fall of rain generally dissipates the light clouds which arise with this wind; when it is likely to continue, it commonly begins with a cloudy evening.

South-East and by East.—Resembles the S. wind. In summer, when it blows, the atmosphere is moist and thick, at other seasons of the year it is cloudy, gloomy, and wet; sometimes this wind is extremely violent.

South-East.—This wind prevails sometimes for three months, during which it rains almost incessantly. It is commonly accompanied by storms of thunder and lightning. In winter it is tempestuous and occasionally overwhelming. Early in the morning of the 25th November, 1775, a storm of this kind tore up by the roots a great number of olive trees, threw down the steeple, drove on shore, damaged, and sunk several vessels in the channel, and excited universal terror. In summer it is close, hot, damp, and often gloomy. Although this wind is not always injurious to vegetation, it assuredly is unfavourable to the health, and, what is of more consequence, exerts its influence on the mind.

South-East and by South.—Does not differ materially from the S.E.; while it prevails, the weather is rather more dense and gloomy.

South-South-East.—Is not so violent as the two last; it is less moist in winter, but hotter and drier in summer.

South and by East.—A cloudy sky and a heavy atmosphere are the precursors of this wind. In summer, while this wind blows, the atmosphere is dull and thick, but is not so close in winter. It sometimes brings rain.

South.—This wind is not very violent; its principal characteristics are heat and moisture. The sickness of 1805, which was analogous to the yellow fever of the West Indies, was entirely caused by the prevalence of this wind; fortunately it is not durable; it always inclines to the S.W.

South and by West.—Frequent rains accompany this wind.

South-South West.—This sometimes blows in whirlwinds. The dews and rain which it produces are irregular and variable. It partakes of the nature of the S. wind.

South-West and by South.—Is a violent wind; in winter sudden and stormy; at other seasons always violent. It is never dry although it is sometimes attended with cold and snow.

South-West.—This wind is by turns impetuous, cold, hot, moist, close, and rainy. Sometimes suddenly rising, then ceasing altogether. Sometimes it blows in whirlwinds, sometimes it is stormy, and occasionally it is calm; but its serenity is temporary. In winter it is sometimes accompanied with snow and hail; when it prevails in spring, it reverses the natural order of the seasons. The vines are often frozen while this wind prevails.

South-West and by West.—This wind resembles the former; it is not so often attended with rain, and in summer it is cooler.

West-South-West.—This wind is milder than the last, more free and refreshing. It inclines sometimes to S. W. sometimes to W.

West and by South.—Is not so variable as the latter. In summer it is generally high, in winter moderate.

*West,**—The weather, during its prevalence, is sometimes humid, sometimes dry, but it is always light, soft and benign. It occasionally brings rain, which has something peculiarly agreeable, and exerts a powerful influence on vegetation. For these reasons the ancients ascribed to it the power of producing flowers and fruits.

West and by North.—Is mild and dry, clear skies, and a light atmosphere commonly accompanying this wind.

West-North-West—Is rather sharp; it is sometimes tempestuous, but its violence is temporary; it often settles at north-west.

North-West and by West—Has the same characteristics as

* This is the zephyrus of the ancients, ζωη φερω, bringer of life.

the preceding, except that in winter it is sometimes more violent at its first commencement.

North-West—Often is ushered in with fine weather. It is almost always dry (especially in summer); its natural qualities are to cool the air, and to extinguish the seeds of diseases, which in close and unwholesome weather we frequently see affect certain constitutions. Its favourable influence is very extensive. It is never, or very rarely, attended with rain, and then but for a short time; in summer it is often periodical. Although the climate is that of Greece, this wind often increases its natural purity.

North-West and by North—Is variable; it always inclines to north-west.

North-North-West—This wind is high and ungovernable in winter. In summer it is cool and dry, occasionally stormy and wet.

North and by West—Is high and violent, and sometimes accompanied with snow. If it rains, it is cool, and the fall of rain heavy. In summer it is cool, but not lasting; it always settles at north-west.

North—In winter it is sharp, high and piercing, sometimes very violent. After the winter solstice there is frost and snow with this wind, but those are temporary. In summer it is cool and serene.

North and by East—Is variable and tempestuous; it ends by fixing at north-north-east.

North-North-East—The parent of ice and snow; the ancients represent him with the tails of serpents instead of legs and feet; its fury is terrible. In summer it is dry; in winter sometimes rainy; its violence often does great damage.

North-East and by North—Sudden and heavy rain, with a sharp atmosphere, generally precede this wind for some days; it is temporary. In summer it is cool and wholesome.

North-East—This wind is the coldest felt in the island; it often continues through the half of January, freezing the rivers, and even water in the glass; but this degree of severity does not continue more than a day or two at most. In

summer, if it is violent, it obliges the inhabitants to return to their winter clothing.

North-East and by East—Is rather more humid, and not quite so severe; in its other qualities it is not unlike the last mentioned.

Although the sirocco felt at Corfu is not to be compared in intensity and its effects to that experienced in Sicily, yet a few observations as regards this singular wind as generally felt in the Mediterranean, may not be out of place.

Dr. Hennen says that all winds blowing between S. and E. have more or less of the sirocco character; but the genuine or black sirocco (as it is called) blows from a point a little to the southward of S.E. Without affecting the thermometer or barometer in any remarkable degree, the sirocco almost invariably gives the sensation of burning heat and oppression at the chest, accompanied with languor and a propensity to perspire with the slighest exertion. Many can foretell the approach of a sirocco some hours before it begins to blow, by the peculiarities of their feelings, and there are few indeed who cannot at once decide, that this wind has commenced, without making any reference to external objects; but it is by the sick and the weakly convalescent that its depressing effects are most severely experienced.

It is a remarkable fact, that wounds and ulcers, and the discharge from mucous surfaces, generally deteriorate during the prevalence of a sirocco; and it is equally certain, that if vaccination, or small-pox inoculations, are performed at this period, they are extremely liable to fail; and if they succeed, the progress of the pustule is often suspended, and it is frequently ten or twelve days in reaching the state usually attained in six or eight.* Liver patients suffer acutely during the sirocco.

That the southerly wind in general, and the modifications of it in particular, is unfavourable to the health and spirits of man, is an opinion upon which most classes of persons throughout the Mediterranean, are unanimous. All the ancient phy-

* See 'Philosophical Transactions,' vol. lxxi.

sicians, who have written upon Mediterranean diseases, from Hippocrates downwards, give their testimony to the same effect, and speak of the pestilential nature of the southerly winds as perfectly familiar. Homer himself, a most accurate observer of nature, when describing the wound inflicted upon Mars by Minerva, represents the god of war as ascending to Olympus in a cloud of

> 'Vapours blown by Auster's sultry breath,
> Pregnant with plagues, and shedding seeds of death.'
>
> ILIAD, *5th Book.*

The first symptoms felt under the prevalence of this wind are the following:—a general lassitude or torpor of the muscular system, attended by head-ache and heaviness and oppression of the nervous system, inducing an inaptitude to any exercise, either corporeal or mental; everything that is touched is damp and clammy, particularly one's clothes, which feel as if they had been wrung out of water; appetite impaired; thirst increased; perspiration profuse: in short, one feels as if all the pores (as the common expression is) of his frame were relaxed and opened.

It is easy to conceive that this condition of the system predisposes and renders absorption very active, which accounts for the deleterious effects of the sirocco while prevailing in marshy places abounding in malaria.

Whether all the lower animals feel the relaxing effect of the sirocco wind, is undecided: horses certainly do, for they sweat sooner, and are more languid than at other times; but on inanimate nature its effects are very obvious.

The walls of houses, stone floors, and pavements, invariably become moist when the sirocco blows. But although the sirocco is so charged with moisture, vegetables, especially that part of them exposed to it for any length of time, appear quite shrivelled and burnt up, and very frequently they are destroyed altogether. Wine bottled in a sirocco is greatly injured and often destroyed. Meat taints astonishingly soon during its prevalence. No prudent housekeeper ever salts

meat at this time; for if either taints at once, not taking the salt, or else it keeps very badly.

Drains emit more putrid smells in a sirocco, than at any other period.

No carpenter uses glue in the sirocco, for it does not adhere.

No painter willingly works during its prevalence, for his paint will not dry. I have myself specimens proving this fact, which are now, at the end of three months, nearly in the same state as when painted. The natives assert, that if paint, applied during a sirocco, does happen to dry by intense heat, and a change of wind, it always oozes again on the return of the sirocco: for the correctness of this statement I cannot vouch.

Bakers diminish the quantity of their leaven during the sirocco, as dough is found to ferment sufficiently without it.* Hippocrates endeavours to account for these phenomena by saying that the south wind blows from places of a like nature with the north: for, coming from the south pole, and breaking through much snow, ice, and hard frosts, or hail, it must needs affect those that live nearest it in the same manner as the north wind; but not the whole country alike that it passes through. For, as it passes through the course of the sun, and under the equator, the moisture is exhaled by the sun, and being dried, becomes rarified, so that it cannot but be hot and dry when it arrives there. In the places, therefore, that are nearest, this hot and dry quality must be imparted, as it is, in fact, in Africa, where the vegetables are dried up, and the inhabitants dried insensibly. For, having neither sea nor river to attract moisture from, it attracts that of animals and vegetables; but when it crosses the sea in this hot and rarified state, it fills the country it falls upon, with much humidity; and therefore, when the situation of a place does not hinder, the south wind must needs be hot and moist.

Dr. Benza truly remarks, that it is probable that the quantity of electric fluid is increased in the atmosphere during the

* These facts are given on the authority of Dr. Hennen, and can be corroborated by many individuals.

sirocco; which, if we once admit, we can easily and satisfactorily explain the depressing power of the atmosphere during this wind; why rain almost always follows soon after it; why there is so much watery vapour in the atmosphere, so as to render it thick and hazy? why, during the sirocco, the thermometrical degrees of caloric do not keep pace with our sensations of heat; why sea-bathing almost always relieves the sensations produced by this wind, &c. &c. And it is certain that during the sirocco electric meteors are frequent, and when the horizon is clouded, the most beautiful coruscations are seen, and in Sicily during the strong sirocco a slight friction against the fur of any living animal, or the shaking of woollen clothes, is sufficient to produce sparks of electric fluid.

Diseases.—A detail of the diseases of a country where an accurate register be kept, is of the greatest value, and deserves especial record; I therefore subjoin the following interesting data, which were collected by Dr. Hennen, and transmitted to the Army Medical Board; they refer to the military sick, which, however, in some measure, is not a fair criterion of the healthiness of an island, or station, as soldiers are exposed to fatigues and to nightly dews, which civilians frequently avoid, to say nothing of excessive drunkenness, so prevalent among British soldiers, where wine or spirits can be cheaply procured.

The average strength of the garrison of Corfu, from 21st July, 1815, to 21st December, 1821, and the daily number of sick, was—

	21st July to 20th Dec. 1815.	1816.	1817.	1818.	1819.	1820.	1821.
Strength of the Garrison . .	2867	2989	1821	1670	1898	1684	1785
Average daily number of Sick .	116	112	105	86	92	99	126

Fevers, especially of the remittent and intermittent types, are of frequent occurrence, and form nearly two-fifths of the total admissions into the hospitals. The total of all dis-

eases admitted into the hospitals during the seven years, was, 15,191, among which were:—Common fevers, 3,299; Typhus, 2; Remittents, 1,400; Quotidians, 342; Tertians, 285; Quartans, 17; Unclassed intermittents, 376; Total, 5,721. The mortality by fevers of all descriptions was 170, or about 1 in $33\frac{2}{3}$.

The deaths occurred as follows:—

From common continued fever	40	or 1	in	$82\frac{1}{4}\frac{9}{0}$
„ Typhus . . .	1	„ 1	„	2
„ Remittent . . .	119	„ 1	„	$11\frac{9}{11}\frac{0}{9}$
„ Quotidian . . .	5	„ 1	„	$68\frac{2}{5}$
„ Tertian . . .	2	„ 1	„	$142\frac{1}{2}$
„ Quartan . . .	—	„ —	„	—
„ Unclassed Intermittent	3	„ 1	„	$125\frac{1}{3}$

It is agreed upon, that the remittents of Corfu, and of the Mediterranean generally, much resemble those of the West Indies.

Dissection in fever cases almost always shewed considerable determination to the head, and (according to the verbal accounts received by Dr. Hennen) to the spinal canal. The spleen was very generally diseased, enlarged, soft, and semiputrid. The liver was often diseased, the pancreas was frequently hardened, and the stomach mottled with red patches, while the colon was irregularly distended or contracted.

Dysentery was the next most important disease treated in the military hospitals of Corfu. The admissions for the seven years were:—Acute, 805; Chronic, 86. Of whom died—Acute, 25; or, 1 in $32\frac{1}{4}$. Chronic, 6; or 1 in $14\frac{2}{3}$.

Diarrhœa was of frequent occurrence; there were treated 605 cases, of which only 2 died, or 1 in $302\frac{1}{2}$.

Pneumonia occurred in 337 cases, of which only 4 died, or 1 in $84\frac{1}{4}$.

Phthisis Pulmonalis, 66 cases, of which 33 proved fatal in the islands. There were also 60 cases classed under the indefinite head 'Pulmonic.' Of these 60, 34 were discharged, and 26 died.

According to Dr. Sinclair's reports, phthisis and pulmonic

inflammations, as they occurred at Malta, Gibraltar, and Minorca, bore a proportion of 1 to $2\frac{1}{2}$ of all the other serious complaints; but by the annexed return, it will be seen that at Corfu, phthisis only bore a proportion of 1 to $218\frac{45}{66}$, and including the cases marked 'pulmonic,' as well as all the cases of hæmoptysis, pneumonia, and acute and chronic catarrh, the whole only amounted to 760, or a proportion of 1 to 19 of other complaints. Dr. Sinclair embraces a much wider field than Dr. Hennen; but the annexed returns clearly prove, that in the seven Ionian islands, phthisis, as it has occurred in the army, has, from an average of seven years, borne a proportion to other complaints of 1 to $198\frac{25}{172}$ only.

At Malta, on an average of eight years, phthisis has occurred in a proportion only of 1 to $93\frac{48}{190}$.

Including all pulmonic complaints whatever, they have only been as 1 to $20\frac{3}{4}$ in Greece; as 1 to 14 in Malta.

Taking into calculation the whole Mediterranean Islands, the proportion of pulmonic to other diseases has been only 1 to $17\frac{1}{4}$ in the British army, affording a wide difference, indeed, from Dr. Sinclair's calculations for the navy.

Whenever phthisis is established, the climate of the Mediterranean is decidedly injurious; but it admits of a question whether the climate may be equally injurious to those who are merely predisposed to pectoral complaints.

Dr. Hennen conceives it worthy of investigation, whether a moist malarious atmosphere, like that of the island of Corfu, may not be unfavourable to the development of these diseases. We certainly have strong grounds for supposing that hectic symptoms diminish in proportion to the increase of intermittent and remittent fever.

If we take the Ionian Islands in the order of rarity of pulmonary affections in general, as given by the returns, they stand thus:—

Zante - -	1 in $30\frac{72}{106}$
Cephalonia -	1 „ $29\frac{75}{105}$
Corfu - -	1 „ 19
Cerigo - - -	1 „ $18\frac{4}{21}$

Santa Maura	-	1 „ $18\frac{55}{126}$
Ithaca	- -	1 „ $13\frac{29}{43}$

By this we see that the three islands *which are decidedly most malarious and remarkable for remittents have had fewest pulmonary affections,* viz. Zante, Cephalonia, and Corfu; while Ithaca, which is very dry, has had most. Santa Maura, although marshy, has had little less than Cerigo, which is dry, but it has only been garrisoned by small and select detachments: while Cerigo, if it wants malaria, makes up for it in violent storms and changes of wind. This evidence is very striking as to pulmonic affections in general. Let us now turn to pure phthisis, and see how it stands in the order of rarity. It is as follows:—

Ithaca - -	1 in 588
Corfu - -	1 „ $212\frac{56}{86}$
Santa Maura -	1 „ 211
Cerigo - - -	1 „ 191
Cephalonia - -	1 „ $160\frac{7}{26}$
Zante - - -	1 „ $147\frac{18}{20}$

This table, Dr. Hennen impartially admits, does not certainly bear out the views suggested in the former. Ithaca, which showed most pulmonary affections in general, exhibits in the present table the smallest number of phthisical cases: perhaps this may be explained by recollecting that it was garrisoned by only small detachments, which are generally selected from among healthy men. Cerigo, also, which is drier than either Cephalonia or Zante, has had fewer cases of phthisis than occurred in these islands. It was similarly circumstanced, as to its garrison, as Ithaca; but, on the other hand, we find that Corfu and Santa Maura, which are among the most remarkable for malaria, are the freest from phthisis. These facts, when weighed together, in part support and in part contradict the opinion which has been offered on the influence of malarious countries on pulmonary diseases.

But before this important question is decided, a vast number of facts must be collected, and the histories of indi-

vidual cases must be drawn up with such precision as to leave as little doubt of their real nature on the mind of the reader as on that of the narrator, at whatever distance of time or place. The following table shews the—

Pulmonary Diseases treated in the Hospitals of the Ionian Islands, from 1815 to 1821 inclusive; together with the same as they have occurred at Malta, from the year 1814 to 1821 inclusive.

Islands.	Hæmoptysis.	Of whom have died.	Phthisis Pulmonalis.	Of whom have died.	Pneumonia.	Of whom have died.	Catarrhus Acutus.	Of whom have died.	Catarrhus Chronicus.	Of whom have died.	Complaints classed under the head Pulmonic.	Of whom have died.	Total of Pulmonary Affections.	Total of Deaths.	Total of other Diseases.	Proportion of Pulmonary to other Diseases.
Corfu	21	1	66	33	444	4	141	..	28	..	60	26	760	64	14431	1 in 19
Cephalonia	2	..	20	3	53	..	20	..	6	..	7	1	108	4	3207	1 in $29\frac{75}{106}$
Santa Maura	7	..	11	6	67	..	34	..	6	..	1	..	126	6	2321	1 in $18\frac{53}{125}$
Cerigo	1	..	2	2	12	1	3	..	3	..	..	..	21	3	382	1 in $18\frac{1}{24}$
Ithaca	2	..	1	1	15	1	24	..	1	..	..	..	43	2	588	1 in $13\frac{28}{43}$
Zante	4	..	22	7	47	..	33	..	..	..	..	..	106	7	3252	1 in $30\frac{72}{106}$
Total	37	1	122	52	638	6	255	..	44	..	68	27	1164	86	24181	1 in $20\frac{3}{4}$
Malta	51	5	190	76	486	10	392	3	146	2	..	..	1265	94	17718	1 in 14
Grand Total	88	6	312	128	1124	16	647	3	190	2	68	27	2429	180	41899	1 in $17\frac{1}{4}$

The other diseases do not require notice; the plague has several times appeared, and of 28 cases treated in 1816, only three recovered. The process of parturition is easy; twins are common among them, and triplets are not rare. In December, 1807, a Jewess brought forth five children at the seventh month, three of them alive. In point of longevity, the Corfiots are on a par with the other natives of southern Europe, and many old people are to be seen among them. Within the last fifty years, thirty-five males and thirty-six females died upwards of 90, and five males and three females at upwards of 100; one of them 116.

Deformity is a rare occurrence among the Corfiots, and monstrosity still more so. In his whole life Dr. Mordo has

only met with one monster; in this unique case, the ears were placed on the *occiput*, and the legs and arms were distorted. He has only seen one hare-lip, and one *spina bifida*. In one or two families children have been born with six fingers, and this had continued for four generations. Goitrous persons, and cretins, are unknown.

Popular Medicine.—The Corfiots and the Greeks, generally, are much inclined to trust their diseases to nature, or at least to the most simple remedies, and rarely have recourse to a physician until their disease becomes very violent or painful. There is a proverb in their language, which states that "the disorder is the physician," and another which advises to consult "not the physician but the disorder." To the first part of this advice they are very attentive.

Besides numerous plants and herbs which are used by the country people, in their own and their children's diseases, the following are the most remarkable practices:—

To weakly children, the blood of the land tortoise is given internally, and it is externally rubbed to the spine. Hence it will appear that frictions to the spine are not so exclusively of German and British invention as are imagined. This practice has been followed from time immemorial.

Chlorotic girls are made to swallow the liquid collected in the little hollows of the leaves of the plant *dipsacus*, which they call *Nero krati*, or water-holder. An extract, or decoction of the leaves of the same plant, is used internally as a deobstruent.

Rickets they cure by frictions, with aloes and aristolochia, a practice derived from the Zantiots.

Roasted wheat and forge-water are conceived powerful in the cure of erysipelas. Bleeding in the foot is the favourite mode of blood-letting among the Corfiots and all Greek females; and the sovereign remedy among all classes and sexes for pains of the stomach, griping, &c. is a spirituous tincture of rue, which is sold universally in the coffee-houses and liqueur-shops.

The febrile diseases of the few cattle imported, are treated

by decoctions of herbs, and sometimes by bleeding, either in a vein, or by cutting off a joint of the animal's tail. The disease called the pip in fowls, is cured by removing an aphthous crust which forms on the tongue, as is done in England; but the Corfiots make the bird swallow the crust in a spoonful of oil, which purges it copiously. Convulsions in goats are cured by the actual cautery thrust through the cartilage of the nose. Setons of green hellebore are inserted in the breasts of horses, for pectoral complaints. Their pigs are subject to a tumour of the palate, which is cured by incision, and the application of salt. As a preventive to canine madness, a paste made of verbascum and cantharides is administered to their dogs.

The principal disease of plants, independent of the ordinary effects of sudden cold, blighting winds, long continued drought, &c. is one which attacks the olive tree. It is caused by insects, which are supposed to have been originally bred in the olives, that rot at the roots of the trees. These insects are either the common grub, which destroys the kernel of the olive, or the dart fly, which lays its eggs in the fruit, and whose young destroy its pulp. The mode of cure consists in gently beating the leaves, so that the worms drop on the ground, which are there buried by digging round the tree. Dr. Mordo advises, if the fruit be much pricked by the worm, to begin the oil harvest at once, so as to anticipate the formation of the fly.

Vegetable Kingdom. The olive is the principal production of Corfu, yielding in favourable years nearly 10,000,000 gallons of oil. The small grape, from which the well known dried currants are prepared, is next in importance; flax is raised in considerable quantities, but of corn there is not more than four months consumption grown in the island. Various woods are found in the mountains, though not fit for shipbuilding; among them are several sorts of oak, in particular the Balania, or Valonia (Quercus Ægilops), the acorn of of which affords a useful dye-stuff.

Cyprus and palm trees are common, and the plains in many

places are covered with the *Cactus Indicus, Agnus Castus, Salvia pomifera,* myrtle and other odoriferous plants; potatoes and other vegetables are excellent; as are also the numerous fruits, including the fig, orange, citron, pomegranate, melon, apricot, peach, plum, pear, apple, &c. Several medicinal plants flourish, such as the Colchicum, Hyosciamus, Momordica Elaterium, Scilla Maritima, Ricinus, Smilax Aspera, &c. The following is a list of plants indigenous to Corfu, prepared by Dr. Pierri of the island: the months in which they flourish are denoted.

The asterisks signify that those plants after which they are placed, are natives of Britain.

Class 1. Salicornia, *samphire;* herbacea,* fructicosa:* Oct.

Class 2. Ligustrum, *privet;* vulgare:* May.

Phillyrea: media; latifolia: May.

Veronica, *speedwell;* six species, asinifolia; April.

Verbena, vervain; officinalis: April.

Salvia, *sage;* nilotica, horminum, officinalis:* April.

Class 3. Valeriana, *Valerian;* rubra, plur. officinalis:* May.

Crocus, *saffron;* sativus:* October.

Gladiolus, *cornflag;* communis: April.

Iris, pseudacorus; florentina, germanica, lutescens, spuria: April.

Cyperus, *greater galangale;* flavescens: October.

Order 2. Alopecurus, *foxtail grass;* bulbosus:* April.

Agrostis, *bent grass;* stolonifera:* November.

Briza, *quaking grass;* maxima: May.

Festuca, *fescue grass;* bromiodes: April.

Avena, *oats;* elatior: April.

Lagurus, *hare's-tail grass;* ovatus: April.

Class 4. Scabiosa, *scabious;* transilvanica, integrifolia: May.

Galium, *Ladies-bed straw;* sylvaticum, aparine: October.

Asperula, *wood-roof;* arvensis, calabrica, cynanchia: October.

Rubia, *madder;* tinctorium.

Plantago, *plantain;* altissima, lagopus: May.

Cornus, *dog-wood;* sanguinea:* November.

Order 2. Ilex, *holly;* acquifolium:* May.
Hypecoum; erectum: April.
Class 5. Heliotropium, *turnsole;* Europeum: September.
Anchusa, *bugloss;* officinalis, tinctoria: March.
Cynoglossum, *hounds'-tongue;* officinalis* apenninum: April.
Symphytum, *comfrey;* officinalis, tuberosum:* April.
Cerinthe, *honeywort;* major: March.
Onosma; echioides: April.
Borago, *borage;* officinalis: January.
Lycopsis; arvensis: January.
Echium, *viper's bugloss;* vulgare,* creticum: April.
Cyclamen, *sowbread;* Europeum:* September.
Anagallis, *pimpernel;* arvensis:* April.
Convolvulus, *bindweed;* cantabrica, littoralis: June.
Campanula, *bell flower;* uniflora, rapunculus: May.
Lonicera, *honeysuckle;* caprifolium peryclymenum:* May.
Verbascum, mullein; ferragineum: 4 species: June.
Datura, *thorn apple;* stramonium:* August.
Hyoscyamus, *henbane;* albus: April.
Solanum, *night shade;* nigrum: May.
Hedera, *ivy;* helix:* January.
Order 2. Chenopodium, *goosefoot;* polispermum:* Sept.
Gentiana, *gentian;* centaurium: May.
Bupleurum, *hare's-ear;* rotundifolium:* May.
Tordylium, *hartwort of Crete;* officinalis maximum: May.
Caucalis, *base parsley;* grandiflora, maritima: April.
Imperatoria, *masterwort;* ostrutium: May.
Smyrnium, *Alexanders;* olusastrum:* March.
Order 3. Viburnum, *pliant mealy tree;* tinus: January.
Sambucus, *elder tree;* ebulus;* nigra:* July.
Order 5. Statice, *thrift;* limonium:* September.
Linum, *flax;* hirsutum, usitat,* cath.:* May.
Class 6. Galanthus, *snowdrop;* nivalis:* November.
Allium, *garlic;* odorum: April.
Ornithogalum, *star of Bethlehem;* umbellatum* pyrenacium:*
Scilla, *squill;* maritima autumnalis:* April.

Hyacinthus, *hyacinth;* comosus bortryoides: October.
Asphodelus, *king's-spear;* ramosus lutelus: April.
Asparagus, acutifolius: September.
Juncus, rush; acutus:* April.
Rumex patientia, *dock;* hydrolapathum:* May.
Order 3. Colchicum, *meadow saffron;* autumnale:* October.
Epilobium, *willow herb;* montanum:* October.
Order 3. Chlora, *yellow centaury;* perfoliata:* June.
Erica scoparia, *heath;* cinerea:* March.
Polygonum, *knot grass;* aviculare;* divaricatum: March.
Class 9. Laurus, *bay-tree;* nobilis: April.
Class 10. Cercis, *Judas-tree;* siliquastrum: April.
Ruta, *rue;* graveoleus: April.
Tribulus, *caltrops;* terrestris: October.
Arbutus, *strawberry tree;* uneds:* October.
Order 2. Saponaria, *soapwort;* officinalis:* October.
Order 3. Cucubalus, *berry bearing chickweed;* behey* glutinosus: May.
Silene gallica, *viscous campion;* bellidifolia quinquevulnera: May.
Stellaria, *greater chickweed;* dichotoma: January.
Order 5. Cerastium, *mouse-ear chickweed;* procumbens: April.
Class 11. Lythrum, *willow-herb;* hyssopifolium:* May.
Order 2. Agrimonia, *agrimony;* rupatoria:* June.
Order 3. Euphorbia, helioscopai;* serrata; platiphyllosburn: March.
Order 5. Sempervivum, *houseleek;* sediforme: May.
Class 12. Myrtus, *myrtle;* communis: June.
Amygdalus, *almond-tree;* communis: Jan.
Order 2. Crataegus, *wild-service tree;* oxiacantha*: April.
Order 4. Pyrus nivalis, *pear-tree;* pullueria: April.
Order 5. Rosa canina; sempervivus: September.
Rubus fruticosus,* *raspberry;* tinctorium; October.
Class 13. Chelidonium, celandine; glaucium*: May.

Papaver, *poppy;* rhocas: April.
Tilia, *lime-tree;* europea:* April.
Cistus fumana, *rock rose;* ladaniferus salvifolius: April.
Order 3. Delphinium, *larkspur;* consolida:* September.
Order 5. Nigella, *fennel flower;* damascena: May.
Order 7. Anemone, *wind flower;* palmata: May.
Clematis, *virgin's bower;* viticella,* flamula; June.
Adonis, *pheasant's eye;* vestivalis:* April.
Ranunculus, *crowfoot;* nivalis, bulbosus,* parvulus: March.
Helleborus, *black hellebore;* viridis:* November.
Ajuga, *bugle;* reptans;* April.
Teucrium, *germander;* scordium,* camaedris: May.
Saturefa, *savory;* thymbra: October.
Nepeta, *catmint;* cataria:* May.
Mentha, *mint;* sylvestris:* April.
Lamium, *dead nettle;* amplexicaule: March.
Stachys, *base horehound;* hirta cretica: October.
Phlomis, *Jerusalem sage;* fruticosa: May.
Origanum, *wild marjoram;* vulgare:* June.
Thymus, *thyme;* alpinus, vulgaris: July.
Melissa, *balm;* officinalis: October.
Prunella, *self heal;* vulgaris,* laciniata: May.
Order 2. Rhinanthus, *elephant's head:* viscosa, trisago, cristagalli:* March.
Antirrhinum, *snap-dragon;* sprorium,* majus,* orontium.*
Scrophularia, *figwort;* canina, auriculata, scoradonia:* February.
Cerobanche, *broom rape;* major:* May.
Vitex, *chaste-tree;* agnus castus: July.
Acanthus, *bear's breech;* spinosus: May.
Class 15. Myagrum, *gold of pleasure;* perfoliatum: March.
Draba, *whitlow grass;* verna:* January.
Thalaspi, *treacle mustard;* montanum,* alpestre,* bursa pastoris:* January.
Alissum, *madwort;* incanum: April.
Biscutella, *buckler mustard;* lyrata: April.

Cardamine, *lady's smock;* gracea: January.

Order 2. Cheiranthus, *stock July flower;* annus, tenuifolium, tricuspidatus: February.

Raphanus, *radish;* raphanistrum.*

Class 16. Order 4. Geranium, *crane's bill,* seven species: January.

Order 7. Sida, *Indian mallow;* abutilon: September.

Malape, *base mallow;* malacoides: May.

Class 17. Order 2. Fumaria, *fumitory;* bulbosa officinalis: March.

Order 3. Polygala, *milk wort;* vulgaris:* April.

Order 4. Cenonis, *restharrow;* arvensis,* viscosa: May.

Anthyllis, *lady's finger;* vulneraria,* tetraphylla: April.

Lupinus, *lupine;* hirsutus: April.

Pisum, *pea;* arvense: April.

Orobus, *bitter vetch;* tenuifolia: May.

Lathyrus, *chickling vetch;* angulatus, sylvestris:* June.

Vicia lutea,* *vetch;* sativa,* eracca,* bithynica:* May.

Ervum, *bitter vetch;* tetraspermum:* April.

Cytisus, *trefoil tree;* argenteus, spinosus: February.

Coronilla, *joint-podded culctea;* glauca: February.

Hippocressis, *horse-shoe vetch;* unisiliquosa: May.

Scorpiurus, *caterpillars;* sulcata, subvillosa: May.

Galega, *goat's rue;* officinalis: May.

Astragalus, *liquorice;* mons pessulanus: May.

Biserula, *base hatchet vetch;* pelecinus: April.

Trifolium, *trefoil;* alpinum, cheleri, lappacæum: April.

Lotus, *bird's-foot trefoil;* hirsutus, græeus, tetragonobolus: April.

Medicago, *moon trefoil;* marina polimorpha: May.

Class 18. Order 4. Hypericum, *St. John's wort;* perfoliatum: May.

Class 19. Geropogon, *old man's beard;* glabrum: May.

Tragopodon, *goat's beard;* porrifolium:* May.

Sonchus, *sow-thistle;* oleraceum: February.

Leontodon, *dandelion;* squamosum: March.

Crepis, *base hawkweed;* vesicaria: May.

Lapsana, *nipple-wort;* stellata: April.
Chicorium, *succory;* intybus :* June.
Cnicus, *blessed thistle;* spinosissimus: May.
Onorpordum, *woolly thistle;* acanthum :* May.
Order 2. Tussilago, *colt's-foot;* farfara :* February.
Senecio, *groundsel;* vulgaris: January.
Aster, *starwort;* tripolium :* November.
Inula, *elecampane;* pulicaria, bubonium, crithmifolia: Feb.
Bellis, *daisy;* perennis: January.
Matricaria, *feverfew;* montana coronaria: May.
Buphthalmum, *ox-eye;* spinosum, maritimum, October.
Anthemis, *chamomile;* nobilis,* maritima :* October.
Order 14. Calendula, *marygold;* arvensis, officinalis: May.
Order 6. Viola canina, *violet;* odorata,* palustris: January.
Class 20. Orchis globosa; morio,* coriophora, pyramidalis: May.
Ophrys, *twy blade;* spiralis,* arahnites: May.
Order 8. Arum, *wake robin;* arisarum: January.
Class 21. Order 10. Momordica, *male balsam apple;* elaterium: April.
Class 22. Order 6. Smilax, *rough bindweed;* aspera: Dec.
Order 8. Mercurialis, *mercury;* annua,* alternifolia: Jan.
Class 24. Ord. 1. Adiantus, *maiden-hair:* capillis veneris: Jan.
Asplenium, *spleenwort;* caterach: January.
Polypodium, *polypody;* vulgare.
Acrosticum, *forked fern;* polipodioides.

There are many other plants, the above list being selected partly with reference to medicinal uses; the wild irises are among the most beautiful of the numerous uncultivated plants.

Animal Kingdom.—There are no animals peculiar to the island, and, owing to the scarcity of pasture, few cattle are maintained. It is a curious fact that dogs are with difficulty reared: hares and rabbits are met with, but deer and other large game are unknown.

Birds of prey, *Accipitres*, are rare in Corfu. The vulture is sometimes met with, and hawks and owls are occasionally seen. Of the orders *Pici*, *Coraces* and *Passeres*, the variety

to be met with (particularly of the latter) is very great; and they are almost indiscriminately used for food by the Corfiots. Among the *Gallinæ*, the domestic fowls are good and plentiful; but the turkey is principally imported from Albania and the Morea. Pigeons, both tame and wild, of different species, are found in vast numbers. Partridges, both of the common and red-legged kind, are plentiful. The *Tetrao coturnix*, (or quail, a migratory bird), is, in the season, very abundant, as are also most of the migratory birds of Europe.

Among the *Grallæ*, storks and herons are occasionly met with; but the *Scolopax rusticola*, or woodcock, is found in the greatest profusion; many, also, are imported from Albania. Snipe, red-shank, plover, and other species of scolopax, are also abundant.

Of the *Anseres*, or water-fowl, the supply is immense, including many species of the anas or duck tribe, as wild duck, widgeon, teal, &c.

In the markets of Corfu we find a variety of fish, the principal of which are as follows:—

Among the cartilaginous fishes, various species of the genus *Raia*, especially skate, and various species of the genus *Squalus*, especially dog-fish. The beautiful *Pegasus draconis* (or sea-horse) is often found. Of the *Acipenseres*, the sturgeon is occasionally seen. Of the order *Apodes*, we meet with various kinds of eels and sword fish. Of the *Jugulares*, the star-gazer (*Uranoscopus*), the weever (*Trachinus draco*), the blenny, the whiting and the pollack, are the most common. Of the *Thoracici*, the *Echeneis remora*, or sucking fish, is very common; and, though rejected even by the shark, is eaten by the lower orders of the Corfiots. We also find the john dory, the plaice, the sole, various species of the sparus, or gilt-head, the perch, the pilot fish, the mackerel, the bonito, the dolphin, miller's thumb, the little sea scorpion, and the mullet of the Romans, *Mullus barbatus*. Of the *Abdominales*, we meet the anchovy, the trout, pike, tench, and the roach. The river fish are not natives, but imported from Albania. The most noted fish of Corfu is the *Mugil cephalus*,

or grey mullet. It is caught in great quantities in the lake of Calachiopulo, where it is called *Chefali*, probably from the great size of its head. It is a delicious fish, and from its roe, mixed with that of another species caught in Bucintro, the Corfiots prepare their *botargo:* they first salt the roes, then smoke them, and preserve them in oil.

Of *Mollusca*, the star-fish, cuttle-fish and echinus, are very abundant. Many of this class are dried, and are a common article of food; they are glutinous if well dressed, but otherwise tough and leathery.

Of *Crustacea*, the crab, craw fish and shrimp are abundant; and the lobster is frequently met with.

Of *Testacea*, the razor-fish, pinna, oyster, mussel and scallop, are abundant; and in Calachiopulo, the cockle is found in vast quantities, and of excellent quality.

Of the *Cetaceous* tribe, the *Delphinus phocæna*, or porpoise, and the *Delphinus delphis*, or dolphin, of the ancients, are very common.

Many, if not most of the fish exposed for sale in Corfu, come from the coast of Albania. The Corfiots assert that, since the last siege, the fish have been frightened away from their shores.

The principal places for catching fish are Calachiopulo, Govino, and the neighbourhood of Gerovolio and Bucintro. They are taken by nets, by the line, and occasionally by means of a deleterious substance which intoxicates them, called 'Splono.' The basis of this is *verbascum*, a plant which, although in England we look upon it as merely mucilaginous, is, both by Haller and Linnæus, considered as anodyne, to man at least. Some species of *euphorbium* are used for a similar purpose. Dr. Hennen says that, in fishing for *Polypi*, *Echinides*, and cuttle-fish, the fishermen throw a few drops of oil on the surface of the water, and having thus rendered it calm, they drop their bait to the fish, to which it soon affixes itself.

Mordo speaks of a fish caught in a valley near Corissia, which, though of a very delicate flavour, is unwholesome.

Coral is found in small quantities near Cape Sidero and Cape Bianco: it was formerly an object of commerce. Corallina is also found upon the coast of Corfu; and sponge and many other zoophytes are abundant.

Venomous reptiles are either unknown, or very scarce, at Corfu. Among the harmless kinds which I have seen, are the land tortoise, the frog, common lizard, and the harmless *Coluber berus*, or adder. Corfu abounds with insects: a complete catalogue I cannot give, but among them are the tick, by whose ravages so many museums have been destroyed; *Chrysomela*, of various species; *Lampyris*, or glow-worm; *Blatta*, or cockroach; *Mantis; Meloe;* a great variety of *Papiliones;* the *Gryllus, Cicada, Tipula, &c. &c.* The beautiful moth *Phalæna junonia*, is occasionally to be met with, as also the *Lepisma*, the *Scolopendra*, and the *Scorpio europæus*, whose bite, however, is not poisonous.*

Population.—Corfu being the capital of the septinsular union, I proceed to shew in this place the whole population of the islands, each settlement having, however, a detail of its own inhabitants. We have no early censuses; according to the Colonial Office returns, the following shews the

Population of the Ionian Islands since 1824.

Years.	Population.		Total.	Persons employed in			Births.	Marriages.	Deaths.
	Males.	Females.		Agriculture.	Manufacture.	Commerce.			
1824			175,902						
1827			180,301						
1828	104,625	90,698	195,323	40,783	9,508	4,804	6,159	1,196	5,332
1829	101,611	88,287	189,898	37,813	7,574	4,418	5,606	1,186	5,018
1830	100,447	87,027	187,474	34,646	6,111	3,693	5,861	1,431	5,498
1831	99,854	88,836	188,690	38,883	5,793	3,669	6,127	1,314	4,673
1832	103,394	89,452	192,846	33,371	5,329	4,408	5,776	1,564	4,306
1833	102,579	90,588	194,167	39,768	6,092		5,897	1,400	5,013
1834	103,920	90,475	194,395	41,042	5,829	4,363	6,242	1,424	4,818
1835									

The following table shews the population by islands in 1832:—

* Dr. Hennen's Medical Reports.

Islands.	Area in Square Miles.	Total. Males. 1832.	Total. Males. 1834.	Total. Females. 1832.	Total. Females. 1834.	Aliens and Resident Strangers.* 1832.	Aliens and Resident Strangers.* 1834.	1834. Population to the Square Mile.	1834. Persons employed in Agriculture.	1834. Persons employed in Manufacture.	1834. Persons employed in Commerce.	1834. Births.	1834. Marriages.	1834. Deaths.
Corfu	227	32105	32909	27734	27981	6764	9040	268	15077	1621	1443	2507	597	1672
Cephalonia	348	31304	30875	25285	25951	340	348	163	12689	1471	835	1567	286	799
Zante	156	19033	18991	16389	16632	1353	1217	228	7672	1947	421	974	284	1181
Santa Maura	180	9702	9592	8406	8258	217	195	99	2458	132	470	525	110	811
Ithaca	44	4798	4902	4587	4664	118	108	217	1407	196	931	246	52	128
Cerigo	116	3945	4091	4605	4488	41	37	74	1522	264	198	248	61	118
Paxo	26	2507	2560	2446	2501	313	223	195	217	198	65	175	34	109
Total	1097	103394	103920	89452	90475	9146	11168	177	41042	5829	4363	6242	1424	4818

* Included in the total number of population.

It will be seen from the foregoing, that the present population of Corfu is upwards of 66,000, from which it would appear that the number of inhabitants within the present century is on the increase, as shewn by the following census, taken in November, 1802:—

Within the Town.

Men, Women and Children of the Greek persuasion	4,700
Do. do. Latin	1,600
Do. do. Jewish	1,229
Total within the Town	7,529
In the Suburbs of St. Rocco	508
Do. Manduchio	1,829
Do. Potamo	2,192
Do. Castrades	2,160
Total in the Town and Suburbs	14,218
Population in the 24 Midland Villages	7,706
Do. 44 Northern	12,660
Do. 34 Southern	9,169
Do. Island of Fano and Merlice	773
Total Population	44,526

The classification of the inhabitants in the town was as follows, according to the same census:—

Section.	Proprietors.				Number of Proprietors.	Servants.	Indigent People.	Children.
	Rich.	Middle Class.	Lower Class.	Poor.				
First Section.	12	45	165	392	614	51	54	239
Second do.	44	40	149	336	569	48	44	239
Third do.	26	59	231	441	757	78	106	295
Fourth do.	24	51	205	415	695	97	44	249
Fifth do.	5	19	54	147	225	24	49	86
Sixth do.	24	17	93	379	513	66	116	201
Seventh do.	22	48	84	358	512	65	75	198
Total No. .	157	279	981	2,468	3,885	429	488	1,498
of Jews .	13	23	171	507	714	..	100	415
In all . .	170	302	1,152	2,975	4,599	429	588	1,913

A curious table of the Roman Catholic inhabitants of the city of Corfu was prepared by Dr. Benza, and the following is an abstract of a voluminous series of reports :—

Years.	Born.			Dead.			Died more than 90 Years old.		Died more than 100 Years old.		Born.	Marriages
From 1770 to 1820 inclusive.	Males.	Females.	Total.	Males.	Females.	Total.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Twins, and more.	
51	3071	2750	5821	5109	3217	8326	35	36	5	3	44	2235

So that marriages are to children born nearly as 1 to $2\frac{1}{2}$, and twins stand to marriages as 1 to $50\frac{3}{4}\frac{5}{4}$, and to births as 1 to $132\frac{1}{4}\frac{3}{4}$.

The deaths in this table bear no proportion to the marriages and births. They exceed the latter by 2,505; hence we might be led to conclude that the Roman Catholics of Corfu would be extinct in 50 years. Dr. Hennen supposes that the great difference between births and deaths is owing to the following cause: under the Venetians and the French, all soldiers and sailors who died here were entered in the register, which increases the number of deaths above that of births. The French, in particular, lost more than 2,000 soldiers in the excavation of the ditch, which is the reason of the *plus* of deaths. In fact, in the register of the Citadel

Catholic parish, where neither soldiers nor sailors were buried, the births exceeded the deaths a thirteenth.*

The Ionians partake in some general features of the Greek physical configuration. The upper and front parts of the skull are well developed; the features are, in general, pleasing, and wear an air of intelligence. The complexion, in healthy persons, inclines towards olive; and in some of the females, who are not exposed to the sun, it is clear and white. The complexion of the peasantry is, of course, much affected by the sun. Those who reside in the Lefchimo district in particular, and in the neighbourhood of marshes in general, have a sickly leucophlegmatic cast. The eyes are almost universally brilliant and full, in both sexes, and generally dark-coloured; the teeth good; the hair generally brown or black, and bushy in the men; the beard copious; the figure of the middle standard—sometimes beyond it,—and, if not indicative of strength, it promises activity. The constitution sanguineo-choleric; the gestures vivacious; the gait erect and elastic, and the enunciation voluble and emphatic.

The females are, in general, well formed, many of them handsome, but soon falling into years.

The Corfiots are abstemious in their diet, but passionately attached to smoking tobacco. Dancing is a favourite amusement, and their national dance is supposed to be the same with the ancient Pyrrhic dance; a circle is formed by men and women joining handkerchiefs; the circle opens, and the leading person goes through the evolutions of the dance, which consists of forming and reforming the circle; sometimes completely; again only to half its extent; sometimes it doubles back on itself; very often, the leader passes through the middle of the waving line, under the uplifted hands of the dancers, and is followed by the whole train: after a variety of movements of this description, which seem entirely arbitrary, the first leader is succeeded by another. During the whole continuance of this performance, the leader alone is the active person.

* Hennen.

There is another dance, principally executed by men, in which they form circular and other figures, and use considerable muscular exertion, leaping from the ground and stamping upon it with great perseverance.

The open air is the usual scene of performance.

The theatre, singing, music, and village fêtes, are also favourite amusements among the Corfiots. Their instruments are the fife, lute, guitar, violin, and drum.

Amongst the most interesting amusements of the Corfiots, is the 'chiostra publica.' This is in imitation of the former knightly custom of tilting at the ring. The chiostro takes place generally in the summer, but the period is left entirely to inclination. A long course of strong wood-work is erected on the esplanade; about two-thirds of the way a string is drawn across on the tops of two elevated posts, and from it is suspended the ring; the latter is divided into a certain number of circles, and the candidate who hits nearest and fairest in the inner one, wins the prize, which is sometimes a sword of great value, or something of equal amount. Seats are erected on each side the course for the accommodation of the spectators. In front of the ring are seated the judges. This ceremony is attended by all the principal people, together with a vast concourse of the lower orders. Those "preux chevaliers" who engage in the affair are gaily dressed, attended by squires; their horses are likewise richly caparisoned: the lances of the competitors are above six feet long, having at the end a sharp steel point.*

Like the Greeks they are fond of amusements, or a state of listless idleness, for which the numerous festivals of their Church afford them ample opportunity. In this respect they still maintain their ancient character; and in speaking of this trait of the modern Greeks, we may still apply to them Cicero's remark on the 'summum Græcorum otium' of their ancestors.

The character of the Ionians has been severely stigmatized as the very lowest in Europe; Dr. Hennen, after adverting to the exceptions, says,—'Vanity is the predominant charac-

* Kendrick.

teristic of almost every individual, however low in rank he may be. But of what are they vain? Among them, before they came under Brititish protection, justice was openly sold to the highest bidders; public faith was unknown; and as to individual veracity, Greek falsehood *(Græcia mendax)* is proverbial. The instances are rare in which these islanders do not exhibit an uncontrolled propensity to revenge, litigation, and political intrigue, cloaked under the thin veil of patriotic enthusiasm for the national glory. These objects they pursue with all the pertinacity of vice, and with scarcely one redeeming qualification. Tyrannical to their inferiors, they are to their equals and superiors what Juvenal long since described them:

'Adulandi gens prudentissima.'—*Sat.* iii.

'Their clergy are taken from the very scum of the population, and are, with few exceptions, illiterate, superstitious, and immoral. Their nobles are without honour, their merchants without integrity, and their peasantry ignorant and degraded to the most abject degree.

'Whence this lamentable decadence may have proceeded, this is not the place to investigate. It pervades all ranks, from the palace (and every house of more than ordinary size is called a palace) to the cottage. That the Greek character, in general, has been greatly debased by their long endurance of Turkish and Venetian tyranny, as exerted on the Continent and in the Islands, is agreed on all sides, and is consonant with what the history of man has in every age presented to our view; but one of the principal causes is to be found in the depravity and ignorance of their clergy. Many of these persons can barely read their breviary: few, if any acts of private atrocity, or rebellion, have occurred in the Islands, which have not been planned and in part executed by the priests, and there are few gangs of robbers or pirates which have not their chaplain.'

The foregoing is a gloomy picture, dark in its outline, and repulsive to behold; and though in some points correct at

the time it was written, it would be scarcely possible to get any considerable number of individuals in a large community to whom it would apply: that the Greeks are a sunken and debased people is too true, but so are every people who have been long subject to the demoralizing influence of despotism, which chains down every noble faculty of the soul, and gives fearful luxuriance to the host of evil passions to which, unfortunately, the heart of man is prone; but as education spreads, and the gross superstitions of the Greek church, fall into desuetude, it may be expected that the Greek and Ionian character will regain the lofty position it once held; for, assuredly, the soil capable of producing so rank a crop of noisome weeds, is equally adapted for a more generous and useful tillage.

As long as the Ionians remained under the Neapolitan rule, little or no improvement could be expected; and the ascendancy of the lion of St. Mark wrought, of course, no great change in their moral condition. The criminal guilty of ten murders, was only punished with ten years of the galleys, whilst the offence of having spoken disrespectfully of one high in office, received a sentence of ten years of like punishment; hence the frequency of the higher crimes, and the proneness to flattery of which the Greeks are accused. The Venetian policy was to foment discord in the neighbouring states of the Osmanli, and hordes of miscreants were constantly in the pay of the republic for that purpose; the provisions requisite for the garrison of Corfu were purchased from these people, and paid for with munitions necessary for carrying on their brigandage. On the commission of crime in the islands, the perpetrators were received with open arms by these people, where they remained until they had amassed sufficient wherewith to purchase oblivion, bringing, on their return, the evil habits acquired during years of licentiousness; the state thus encouraging the worst crimes by the sale of impunity. With the lower classes education was utterly neglected, and the peasantry were in the most degraded state of ignorance. In the higher and

more opulent, it was customary to send the cadets of families to the universities of Padua and Venice, where all they learned was to forget their native language, its practice being forbidden in the law or other courts, and its use held as vulgar to any but menials. Commerce was diverted from its legitimate channels, or so trammelled with restrictions as to become subservient to the aggrandizement of Venice alone; thus baffling every prospect of honourable occupation in its pursuit with the Ionians, and forcing those bred to the sea into a life of piracy. Under the dominions of either France or Russia, this state was in no degree improved; the sway of either power was of so short duration, or they were so much engaged in weightier matters, as to pay little attention to the islands.

With the British a brighter period commenced—improvements rapidly advanced; and it is only just to state the moral feeling kept pace with external progression. Nothing tended more to ameliorate the state of the islands than the disarming the population. Prior to this act a dagger and pistols formed part of the national costume; hence, on the slightest excitement, these were in requisition, and assassination with its train of attendant consequences followed. On the promulgation of any edict inimical, or supposed to be inimical, to the inhabitants of a district, the inhabitants of the place at once assembled, setting the civil force at defiance, and frequently requiring large bodies of military to restore order; happily, this measure put an end to scenes of the kind, and assassinations are not now more frequent than in other countries.

In character the Ionian differs materially from the Greek of the Continent;—he is quick to devise, and prompt to execute, and surprisingly intelligent. In effecting his object he has more enterprize, although he is less fastidious in the means he employs, than the Moreot;—in religious matters he has as much bigotry—more bombast in relating his actions. The most efficient weapon a Greek possesses loses nothing with the Ionian; the tongue is ever the readiest resource, although it has not the refinement of the Asiatic or

Fanariote Greek. No people are more patient under privation; hunger, thirst, heat, and cold, the Greek endures with undaunted resolution; a morsel of black bread, a few olives, an onion and his capote, and the Greek has food and shelter —is contented and happy. His vices are those of large communities, and are inherited from those who have governed him, rather than natural to him. In his village unpersecuted, the peasant is the same happy unsophisticated being he is elsewhere, and only requires to be released from the degrading influence of the priesthood, and the oppressive tyranny of the nobles,* to equal others of his class. The fondness for religious processions so observable in him, is solely owing to the desire of the priest to uphold his own influence and wealth.

The Corfiot gentleman is stigmatized as 'subtle and adroit, cloaking his evil qualities under the mask of courtesy.'† At the period of these remarks there was doubtless much truth in them; the islands had seen in a very short space so many rulers, that on Great Britain assuming the protection, the better class of Greeks hardly knew what course to pursue; still, even now, there is a strong inclination to verboseness in his conversation, sometimes approaching to servility. Those vices at which human nature revolts, are at the present day held in just abhorrence and detestation; and examples are not wanting in the higher classes which would do honour to any age or country, either as practising the virtues which grace society, or promoting everything tending to increase the welfare of their countrymen.

From the long dominion of the Venetians, society altogether took its tone from that people; and many of their old customs are still retained. Formerly the female part of the creation was closely secluded, rarely or never mingling with the males. Their education seldom extended beyond a

* Lord Nugent was accused of wishing to restore the feudal tyranny of the nobles; this is as untrue as the other allegations, and is proved by the fact of his Lordship having caused one of the nobles to be tried and imprisoned for screening a felon.

† Goodison's Ionian Islands.

knowledge of the tambour frame. At times a dark eye might be seen peering from the corner of a jalousie, or verandah—more of the fair form was rarely seen. At present the Ionian ladies participate in all public amusements, such as balls, fêtes, and entertainments, which at Corfu are very frequent during the winter months; English and Greeks freely mixing and enjoying themselves with all the refinement and ease common to the most polished assemblies, the variety of costume and language giving these meetings a charm found in few *reunions* of the kind in other countries. Formerly the reputation of the fair Ionians stood on no very high ground for chastity; and it is to be lamented that frequency of divorce still forms a strong feature. The examples of their protectors have in no degree tended to diminish the evil, the ladies of the two highest officers of the government formerly having each two husbands alive; it should, however, be observed, these affairs gave great public scandal; and the brightest ornament a female wears, is still duly honoured.

With the Russians, although of the same religion, there was little reciprocity of feeling, and still less with the French; and on Great Britain becoming the protecting power, the islanders mixed little with them, their meetings being confined to visits of ceremony. The present good understanding which animates all parties, is mainly attributable to the hospitality of the several presidents of the Senate, first commenced by Baron Theotoky, whose presidency was a singular example of refined and elegant hospitality.

The following excellent advice, given to the Ionians by Lord Nugent when leaving the islands, is so entirely in harmony with my feelings, that I am tempted to subjoin it:—

'Let me intreat you to encourage, by every means within your power, maritime science and enterprize among your people. You have a brave and expert class of sailors in all your islands. It was the policy of Venice to keep down maritime science and enterprize among you. Herself, in the days of her domination, holding sovereignty over the waters of the Adriatic, and having great naval power in the Medi-

terranean, she, with a narrow, and short-sighted, and oppressive policy, discouraged the means of maintaining communication and creating wealth among her colonies. The traces of that wasteful system are still partially, but lamentably, visible in these States. But you are now protected by the greatest maritime power of the world, whose true glory, whose well-founded policy it is to advance the prosperity of all her dependencies. The sea is the high road of your country, to be rendered generally passable, and to be maintained, not by corvée, by statute labour, or by tax, but by assisting, and countenancing, and rewarding the skill and courage of your sailors. The sea is the conductor of your country's resources, of its external and internal commerce, and along it the elements of your wealth must flow, and be refreshed, and distributed throughout. Let every Ionian learn to know the sea, to practise the sea, to glory in the sea. It is your interest, it is your duty, to become, in proportion to your means, an essentially maritime community, and to rest your pride upon so being.

'You have wisely and properly given public employment to native-born Ionians, wherever they have been found adequate worthily to undertake it, and wherever it could be bestowed upon them without injustice to the fair claims which foreigners have established by long and faithful service, or by pledged engagement. And I think you will bear me witness that in this I have uniformly seconded and encouraged you. The people of these States have doubtless the first national claim to employment in their own country. But no man has any claim to office without having made himself fully competent to fulfil its duties. I strenuously recommend that every young man in the States should be sent by his parents to learn an active profession. And what are the most useful professions? That of the law is doubtless an honourable and an useful profession in a State which is governed according to known laws, to which men may appeal through their advocates for justice. But the profession of the law in these States is too much crowded. The

business becomes of a petty sort—trifling litigation is encouraged instead of repressed among the people—and the profession of the law becomes a less elevated, if not a less honourable, pursuit. There has been one branch of education, and a very useful one in a state, deplorably neglected here; I mean that of civil engineering. I said it is a very useful one in a state;—it is becoming, by the progress of mechanical, of agricultural, and architectural improvement—by the advances in the making of roads, and bridges, and aqueducts—and by the different ways in which wealth is created and diffused through every country—daily a more useful, a more necessary, and a higher profession. It is applicable always and everywhere; and even if his own country cannot employ the talents of a good engineer, which is very improbable, they are a property for the disposal of which almost every country that surrounds him affords a ready market. Let your countrymen never forget that, without a profession, it is difficult for a man to be independent, and that independence is the only real nobility of man.'

The dress of the Corfiots is much improved within these few years, as far as the higher orders are concerned, and the English and French fashions are adopted among them; but the peasantry have made no alteration in their dress for centuries. It chiefly consists of a wide capot of thick felt (the principal ingredient in which is goat's hair), or coarse shaggy woollen cloth in summer, and of an additional article of the same material in cold or wet weather. The capot is very rarely taken off; the under dress is a woollen vest, large breeches of coarse cotton, called *thorakè*, with cloth leggings, and a coarse sandal of undressed hide, secured by thongs, or a shoe of half-dressed leather scarcely less rude. This is the national dress of the aboriginal peasantry; but the settlers, whether Albanians, Moreots, or others, retain some traces of their native costume, as the red skull-cap, the turban, &c. &c. A girdle or zone, of silk or cotton, is almost invariably worn round the waist by both sexes. The better classes wear a double-breasted vest, usually made of blue or marone

coloured velvet, with a double row of hanging gold or silver buttons, descending from the shoulder to the waist, generally bordered with broad gold lace, and fastened with a sash of coloured silk; cossack trowsers, cut short at the knee, or the white Albanian kelt or petticoat, white stockings and buckled shoes, complete the dress. The hair is worn floating on the shoulders by the men, and by the women platted and hanging down to the heels, and a handkerchief on the head.

The women are loaded with as much clothes of coarse cotton, silk, or brocade, as they can procure; and are passionately fond of every species of ornament, especially necklaces, ear-rings, and girdle buckles. The vests are made like those of the men, of rich velvet, ornamented with gold lace, and flowing open; beneath is worn a beautiful cestus, or girdle, fastened in front by a clasp of gold or silver, and highly wrought. The petticoats are of pink or blue, richly bordered and spangled: no stays are worn, the costume fitting closely to the waist all round; high-heeled shoes, with very large silver buckles, complete the attire. Many of them tinge the nails and tips of the fingers of a pink colour, and the practice of inserting powdered antimony along the edges of the eyelids is very common, especially among such as come from the islands of the Archipelago. This application gives a certain degree of brilliancy to the eyes; but there is a physical peculiarity in the eye of a Greek which requires but little aid from art, and fully justifies the term of "ox-eyed," so frequently applied to them. Cosmetics and perfumes are also much used among them.

Mats spread on the floors are in use among the poorest classes; but, generally speaking, in the town, and in the better order of houses in the villages, there is to be found a good bed, stuffed with wool, hair, or straw, and placed either on a regular bedstead, or on boards and tressels. In lieu of blankets, a counterpane thickly quilted and stuffed with wool, forms a very common and a very comfortable substitute. The Greek females pride themselves on the elegance of their beds; they are covered with silk, and embroidered counterpanes, &c., and with ornamental pillows, in proportion to

the fortune of the owner. The generality of the middle, and the whole of the lower order of people, sleep in their ordinary clothes, and rarely change their personal or bed linen oftener than once a month. A few chairs, tables, and chests of drawers, of an ordinary description, a copper cooking kettle, and some earthen pots and pans of a very coarse kind, complete their furniture.

RELIGION.—The Greek church is the predominant faith of the islanders, the followers of the Latin or Romish faith being few—probably not exceeding 3,000; of Jews there are about 5,000 in the island, all of whom are cordially hated by the Corfiots.* The Romish church was introduced into the island by the Venetians, and at first was only a bishoprick, but Pope Gregory, in 1600, elevated the see to an archbishoprick; the chief being generally a noble Venetian, chosen by the Senate, whose nomination was attended to by the Pope. The cathedral has a chapter composed of six canons, who elect a grand vicar. The clergy of the Latin church were heretofore paid by government stipends, but excepting life interests, this system has, I believe, been now discontinued.

The Latin and Greek churches at Corfu have had many quarrels on the score of superiority—the latter claiming the right of precedence, which, indeed, the Venetian government secretly favoured, but Paul III. enjoined his clergy to cease all further quarrels, since which the Greek church has never been subject to any persecutions, and during Passion week the Catholic and Greek churches have alternate processions on the esplanade. Idolatrous as the rigid Protestant may esteem the Latin church, the Greek is tenfold more so; no Hindoo or other pagan mythology could more abound in superstitious rites than the Greeks, who hold no fewer than four lents, occupying 191 fast days in the year, during some time of which fish even is proscribed, and bread and vegetables alone permitted.

* Lord Nugent afforded the Jews protection from the insults offered principally on Good Fridays.

The Greek church has for its head a protopapa, (archpriest) elected by ballot in an assembly of the clergy and nobles and confirmed by the patriarch at Constantinople. The new protopapa is decorated with his robes in the hall of assembly, and conducted home amidst the ringing of bells and the firing of petareroes. The protopapa of Corfu is distinguished from that of the other islands by the title of grand protopapa, and his authority is equal to that of a bishop. The office lasts five years, at the expiration of which time he returns into the number of ordinary priests or papas. The cathedral has its canons as the Latin church, but they have no fixed prebend; the honour of being at the head of their church is the only advantage they derive from their canonry. They are distinguished by a violet-coloured girdle. Marriages, baptisms, and funerals procure them some remuneration. The expenses of these ceremonies are generally, eleven livres to the protopapa, and three to each canon, with a wax candle of a pound weight. One of the most lucrative articles, and, at the same time, one of the most powerful means of retaining the people in their credulity, are excommunications. Not long since, for the smallest sum a Greek might excommunicate his neighbour, who had it also in his power to retaliate by another excommunication, which rendered null that of his adversary. The same priest performed both parts with equal zeal. These thunderbolts of the Greek church cost the poor creature who had recourse to them dearly. The ceremony was performed in public in the street, and opposite the house of him who was to be excommunicated, and the success was considered sure, when one had the means of feeing the protopapa himself, who came at the head of his clergy to pronounce the anathema, and for the execution of which he proceeded to the house of the individual in a habit of mourning, a black wax candle in his hand, preceded by a large crucifix and a black banner; his suite all clothed in lugubrious stile. The imprecations were accompanied with violent gestures, and from that moment the excommunicated was excluded from church, and deprived of the prayers of the faithful—restoration being

only effected by a counter excommunication. If the sinner had not the means of paying the expense, it often happened that he revenged himself by assassination. Since our Government has been established we have effected a modification of this demoralizing pagan rite, and excommunication can now only take place by the sanction of the archpriest or protopapa. Is it not lamentable to think that both the Greek and Latin churches should have so long perpetuated a barbarous custom which I have seen practised among every species of idolater from the refined Hindoo down to the savage Negro? The number of churches is very considerable; the officiating priest is chosen annually by the parishioners. In the country most of the churches have been built by individuals, who, as proprietors, nominate the papas. The property of the church of St. Spiridion is vested in a private family, and who has the right of inspecting into its revenues. Eight days previous to the festival of St. Spiridion, the doors, windows, and steeple of the church are ornamented with festoons of laurel and myrtle. On the eve of the festival, the shrine which contains the body of the saint, whole and well preserved, is exposed to the veneration of the people. The saint is upright, dressed in his pontifical robes; over the shrine is supported a beautiful silk canopy. The head of the government attends the procession,* with the military staff, and a large proportion of the garrison under arms; a band goes before. It first moves towards the citadel, where a royal salute is fired from each battery. They then make the round of the esplanade, and proceed along the wall on the harbour side, where a salute is fired by each ship of war, decorated with her flags. The ceremony is often interrupted by the sick who are placed

* This absurdity ought to be done away with. In granting full toleration and protection to every form of religion, there is no necessity for the head of the Government and the representative of our Sovereign being made a participator in a heathenish system of idolatry, which degrades man below the level of brutes. The East India Company, although governing 100,000,000 people with a handful of Europeans, stoop to no such servility, and which indeed lessen, instead of creating, respect for the Government.—R. M. M.

under the shrine, in the full confidence of a cure. It often happens that amongst those some are seized with frightful convulsions, which the papas know well how to turn to their account.

In all public calamities the relics of the saint are exposed with the most religious confidence. The church of St. Spiridion enjoys the revenues of some lands which pious individuals have bestowed for its support. The devotion of the insulars affords a very considerable produce. The mariner and the artizan believe that they ensure the success of their speculations in sacrificing a part to St. Spiridion. No boat leaves the port in which the saint has not an interest in the profits of the voyage.

Ecclesiastical Returns of Churches and Chapels in the Ionian Isles, on 31st December, 1834.

Islands.	Greek Church.						Latin Churches.		Protestant English Church.
	Jus Publico (Public.)		Jus Confraternite (Corporate Bodies.)		Jus Patronato (Private.)				
	No. of Churches.	Annual Salaries of Priests.	No. of Churches.	Annual Salaries of Priests.	No. of Churches.	Annual Salaries of Priests.	No.	Expense.	
	No.	£.	No.	£.	No.	£.			No.
Corfu	46	1231	240	937	430	798	6	£. 1010	1
Cephalonia	7	842	247	939	125	419	1		..
Zante	6	544	226	614	265	174	5		..
Santa Maura	55	619	116	189	146	218	1		..
Ithaca	4	243	17	100	7	50	..		..
Cerigo	3	272	5	6	220	94	..		..
Paxo	Bishop.	337	57	87	4	8	..		..
Total	121	4094	908	2874	1197	1731	13	1010	1

N.B. At Corfu one Dissenting or Independent Preacher, and at Zante a Baptist Do.

Education and Schools.—At Corfu there is a public university, also an ecclesiastical seminary for the education of young men intended for the priesthood of the Greek church, and in each of the islands of the state is a school entitled 'secondary,' maintained at the public expense, in which secondary schools the scholars are instructed in the Greek and

Latin classics, in the modern Greek, English, and Italian languages, in arithmetic, and the elementary mathematics.

In the chief town of each island is a central school, likewise at the government expense, on the mutual instruction plan, for teaching reading, writing, and arithmetic; and in these schools the village school-masters are trained in the method of mutual instruction. Besides these schools, entirely at the public expense, there are in each island district schools on the same plan as the central, where similar instruction is given, the expense being defrayed by the parents of the children. The terms per scholar vary greatly, according to the particular agreements stipulated between the masters and parents, and are frequently paid in kind. Government also contributes to the establishment of these schools, by furnishing books, slates, benches, &c., and where no suitable church exists, by providing a school house.

The district and village schools are under the immediate superintendence of the head master of the central school in each island, and there is an inspector-general of all these schools.

The whole of the establishment for education is under the general direction of the commission for public instruction, revised and improved by Lord Nugent, and the number of schools in each island in 1834 is thus shewn:—

Name of the Island.	Public or Free School, and where situated.	No. of Scholars in the Public Schools.			Supported by Government.	No. of Private Schools.	No. of Scholars in the Private Schools.		Total Public and Private Scholars.
		Males.	Females.	Total.	£.		Males.	Females.	
Corfu	The public university, an ecclesiastical seminary, and secondary and central schools, 1 each.	294	..	294	3261	67	1955	353	2602
Cephalonia	12	445	59	504	867	73	1207	..	1711
Zante	2	150	..	150	622	38	666	325	1141
Santa Maura	2	126	..	126	537	17	426	71	623
Ithaca	2	258	..	258	331	9	312	23	592
Cerigo	9	394	9	403	294	2	17	55	475
Paxo	5	122	49	171	257	..	..	..	171
Total	32	1789	117	1906	6171	206	4583	826	7315

THE PRESS—Nothing deserving this title exists in the islands; there is a Government Newspaper at Corfu, one half of which is printed in Italian, and the other in the Romaic Greek; it has, of course, no freedom of discussion. The efforts making to introduce a newspaper press into Greece will probably be felt in the septinsular union, and it is to be hoped that by such means a stimulus may be given to the Ionians for the developement of intellect, which they are not deficient in, but which now lies dormant.

Libraries.—A collection of books, originally founded at Messina, in 1810, by British officers, and transferred to Corfu by them, has, since that period, gradually increased into a very respectable library of several thousand volumes, containing many valuable and well-selected books, to which a very ready access is at all times afforded. All military and naval officers, officers of the civil departments, British residents, and respectable inhabitants, may become members at a moderate entrance, and a small annual, or monthly subscription.

Besides this library, the medical officers of the garrison have a collection of English periodical publications, and standard works.

A small library was founded by the Canon Carale, from voluntary subscriptions among the nobility, &c. The books were lodged in the Franciscan Convent of St. Giustina: to this the Ionian Academy added theirs; but on the arrival of the French, the most valuable of the books were abstracted by them. Some few remain at the convent.

A Bible Society was instituted in the summer of 1819, for the purpose of distributing the translations of the Scriptures into the Greek language, without note or comment, and there can be no doubt that much good will be derived from it by the islanders, for whose benefit it is intended.

STAPLE PRODUCTS.—*Agriculture* is yet extremely rude, and the instruments of tillage as primitive probably as in the time of Ulysses. The olive, which is the principal product, flowers in April, and the fruit is ripe in October: it is not plucked

when ripe, but is allowed to fall on the bare ground, a process which often lasts till April. The trees are neither regularly pruned nor trenched, and they are thickly planted. It is said that the produce of the olive trees, thus thickly planted, brings more money to the proprietor than if they were thinned, and the ground they occupy otherwise cultivated.

The vine is generally planted in the plains and vallies, and corn on the declivities of the hills—a system the reverse of what we should consider proper. A vast extent of the island is in a state of nature, and absolutely pestiferous, for want of a proper system of draining and tillage.

Few proprietors cultivate their own lands, but let them out on short leases, the tenants binding themselves to return a fifth or even a third of the produce.

Manufactures.—The manufacture of oil is the principal, and the machines employed in it are of the rudest construction possible.

The olives are pressed under a perpendicular stone wheel, which revolves in a large-sized horizontal stone of a circular form, somewhat hollowed in the centre. A horse or mule sets the machinery in motion, and a peasant runs before and shovels the olives under the approaching wheel, the action of which is necessarily confined to a limited space, while its power is very insignificant. The bruised mass is then transferred to a bag made of rushes or mat, which is subjected to a heavy pressure; this pressure is increased by means of a screw, wrought by two men at irregular intervals; for the labour is so violent, that they cannot possibly continue long at it. They ship two strong bars, after the manner of a capstan, and then, with a most savage yell, they urge them forward by a simultaneous dart, the effect of which is marked by a quantity of oil oozing through the mat, and falling into a hole cut in the ground for its reception. After the interval of forty or fifty seconds, the labourers dart forward again with similar violence, and with a bodily effort which must strain their whole frame. The quantity of oil that two expert

labourers can express in a day is estimated at ten or twelve jars of rather more than four gallons each.*

The wine is reported to be naturally good, but spoiled in the manufacture.

Salt is manufactured extensively by evaporation under the rays of the sun. Soap and leather are prepared, but of a coarse kind, and not to any great extent. There is a pottery of coarse earthenware at the village of Castrades. Besides these, silk, lace, snuff-makers, confectioners, dyers, tanners, bell-founders, basket and mat-makers, &c. are scattered through the town.

The following returns will convey an idea of the extent of cultivation in the islands for several years in the aggregate; to which I subjoin a view of the produce, stock, and prices of each island.

Nature of Crop and Number of Acres in each Crop in all the Ionian Islands, since 1828.

Years.	Wheat.	Indian Corn, Barley, &c.	Oats.	Currants.	Olive Oil.	Wine	Cotton.	Flax.	Pulse.	Pasture.	Total Number of Acres in Crop.	Number of Acres of Uncultivated Land.
1828	11,162	24,782	1,475	13,006	104,523	49,066	678	995	2,723	7,270	207,810	292,753
1829	10,976	25,128	2,323	13,821	99,660	45,782	940	803	3,307	10,306	202,740	499,340
1830	10,462	24,829	2,708	13,104	111,576	49,608	1,434	927	2,921	11,516	217,569	484,511
1831	3,362	32,596	9,938	12,874	109,728	46,968	1,689	5,050	3,765	18,378	235,882	466,198
1832	14,332	38,702	9,935	12,867	116,828	44,451	996	2,023	3,983	30,254	244,167	457,913
1833	14,002	36,932	4,659	12,870	116,722	46,402	981	1,623	3,955	23,676	238,146	463,934
1834	13,605	33,415	4,475	12,880	116,657	46,386	1,035	1,609	5,962	31,941	234,024	444,793
1835												

* Sir Edward Baynes informs me, that he is now (September, 1835) sending out to Corfu a steam-engine with hydraulic presses, for the squeezing of the olives, and with four pair of stones attached for the grinding of corn. Such an effort to set a good example to the islanders, is highly praiseworthy; the more so as Sir Edward is expending £4,000 in carrying his meritorious project into effect, without any expectation of profit.

Description and Quantity of Produce and Stock in the Ionian Islands since 1828.

Years.	PRODUCE.										LIVE STOCK.			
	Wheat.	Indian Corn Barley.	Oats.	Currants.	Olive Oil.	Wine.	Cotton.	Flax.	Pulse.	Salt.	Horses.	Horned Cattle.	Sheep.	Goats.
	bush	bush.	bush	lbs.	barrel	barrel	lbs.	lbs.	bush	bush.				
1828	43056	182151	11589	15135570	190366	240028	21894	93671	14225	1247	19074	12602	106699	81663
1829	44134	167944	26605	17470800	24013	267338	35605	69209	15719	48338	17695	10918	93728	74803
1830	45380	198228	22260	18003138	135547	289426	26310	91820	16031	197450	16079	10799	103160	80703
1831	45138	192507	37591	20496567	..	286799	32994	132950	24028	...	16356	10906	100741	73447
1832	59069	161843	92385	22776530	179727	319402	34172	115669	21028		16607	12132	117040	82358
1833	56782	195168	32357	18832899	69682	270154	36424	107591	30149		14673	10469	95449	75941
1834	234727	172965	23944	15071400	253923	306622	45145	94522	19826	114193	15275	9660	92002	87637
1835														

Average Prices of each Description of Produce in the Ionian Islands since 1828.

Years.	Wheat.	Indian Corn, Barley.	Oats.	Currants.	Olive Oil.	Wine.	Cotton.	Flax.	Pulse.
	per bsl.	per bsl.	per bsl.	per 1000 lb. weight	per brl.	per brl.	per lb.	per lb.	per bsl.
1828	6s. 9d. to 7s.	4s. 9d. to 5s.	3s.	210s. to 240s.	16s. to 40s.	9s. 4d. to 17s. 4d.	6d. to 10d.	3d. to 6d.	4s. 4d. to 4s. 6d.
1829	4s. 6d. to 7s. 1d.	3s. 5d. to 6s. 2d.	2s. 6d. to 3s. 9d.	104s. to 130s.	21s. to 32s.	5s. 10d. to 13s.	6d. to 10d.	5d. to 6d.	3s. 9d. to 5s. 9d.
1830	5s. to 6s. 3d.	3s. 4d. to 4s. 2d.	1s. 10d. to 3s. 1d.	95s. to 104s.	25s. to 34s.	5s. to 13s.	6d. to 9d.	3d. to 7d.	4s. 7d. to 6s.
1831	4s. 2d. to 5s.	2s. 3d. to 4s. 2d.	1s. 8d. to 2s. 3d.	70s. to 78s.	26s. to 54s.	5s. 5d. to 14s. 7d.	6d. to 1s.	3d. to 6d.	2s. 11d. to 5s.
1832	3s. 11d. to 4s. 4d.	2s. to 2s. 6d.	1s. 8d. to 2s. 2d.	69s. to 73s.	28s. to 38s.	4s. 4d. to 13s.	6d. to 10d.	4d. to 6d.	3s. 11d. to 4s. 4d.
1833	3s. 9d. to 5s.	2s. to 4s.	1s. 6d. to 1s. 10d.	154s. to 182s.	26s. to 54s.	4s. to 12s. 6d.	6d. to 10d.	3d. to 6d.	3s. 6d. to 5s.
1834	3s. 9d. to 5s.	2s. to 4s. 2d.	1s. 9d. to 2s. 2d.	195s. to 210s.	43s. to 60s.	3s. 4d. to 13s.	6d. to 1s.	3½d. to 7½d.	3s. 6d. to 5s. 6d.
1835									

To the foregoing official returns to the Colonial Office, it will be advisable to add a table, shewing the cultivation, produce, stock, and prices of each island; the following is for the year ending January, 1835:—

Returns of the State of Agriculture in the Ionian Isles for the Year ending January, 1835.

Islands.*	Crops, and Number of Acres in each Crop.												Number of Stock.				Nature and Quantity of Produce.								Prices of Produce.									
	Wheat.	Maize, Barley, &c.	Oats.	Currants.	Olive Oil.	Wine.	Cotton.	Flax.	Pulse.	Pasture.	Total No. of Acres in Crops.	No. of Acres of Land Uncultivated.	Horses.	Horned Cattle.	Sheep.	Goats.	Wheat.	Maize, Barley, &c.	Oats.	Currants.	Oil.	Wine.	Cotton.	Flax.	Pulse.	Wheat, per Bushel.	Maize, &c. per Bushel.	Oats, per Bushel.	Currants, per 1000 lbs.	Oil, per Barrel.	Wine, per Barrel.	Cotton, per lb.	Flax, per lb.	Pulse, per Bushel.
																	Bush.	Bush.	Bush.	lbs.	Brls.	Brls.	lbs.	lbs.	Bush.	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.	d.	s. d.
C. .	4005	13508	2963	. . .	75700	13900	69	843	1629	1742½	112008	33372	4101	2541	18085	16707	186205	47526	4583	. .	236016	88961	2002	21089	5593	3 9	2 0	1 8	. .	43 4	8 4	8½	3½	3 6½
Cep.	682	6963	635	6242	4323	12232	473	351	1033	640	32934	189786	3753	1416	26463	14274	5797	47661	4751	9457400	420	45730	25788	16282	7091	4 6	2 2	1 11	206 7	60 8	12 6	6	6	3 9
Z.	7182	966	492	6440	16766	13500	227	134	64	1474	45971	53869	3152	944	14025	16101	23795	1155	639	7030000	1682	65730	6220	3645	757	4 0	2 6	2 2	216 8	45 10	10 0	10	7½	4 2
S.M.†	1234	3249	380	8	8143	4127	111	75	212	5491	17539	97661	2223	1786	11513	28118	12001	31591	3694	4000	. .	62292	6515	23418	2761	3 11	2 0	2 0	195 0	.	5 0	1 0	4	5 6
It. .	49	263	5	190	212	756	1	97	38	1626	1611	3286	643	89	4653	8206	989	6979	286	310000	. .	9045	100	27088	874	3 11½	2 6	1 8	209 5	. .	8 2	10	4½	5 1½
Cg. .	453	8466	. .	. .	513	1365	54	109	1695	5285	12555	41655	840	3082	16275	4160	2240	42150	. .	. .	57	36200	4520	3000	2745	5 0	4 2	. .	. .	48 0	3 4	6½	5	4 0½
P. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	11000	406	. .	. .	. .	. .	11406	5234	270	2	958	21	. .	. .	. .	. .	1674	861	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	47 8	13 0	—	—	—
Total	13505	33416	4475	12880	116657	46386	1035	1609	3962	31941	231024	444793	16275	9660	92002	87627	234727	177065	23944	16071400	253923	306822	45145	94522	19826									

* Owing to want of space, the full length names of the islands have been omitted.

† Santa Maura produced also 114,193 bushels of salt.

Currants and Olive Oil Imported into the United Kingdom, and Revenue therefrom, from 1820.

Years.	CURRANTS.				OLIVE OIL.				
	Imported.	Cleared for Consumption.	Rate of Duty.	Net Revenue.	Imported.	Exported.	Cleared for Consumption.	Duty per Imperial Gallon.	Net Revenue.
	cwts.	cwts.	per cwt. £. s. d.	£.	Imp. gallons.	gals.	gallons.		£.
1820	139149	112629	2 4 4	249983	499289	54946	502658	1s. 6d.	37194
1821	98156	95142		210946	634766	47437	597602	..	44404
1822	104017	96553		214115	920812	21879	796306	..	58850
1823	99639	95050		210859	869770	189297	679949	..	49957
1824	129300	107630		238562	880673	54758	889429	..	66257
1825	126298	105526		234036	1581074	76720	1007225	8d.	44161
1826	85235	110425		244901	724719	235710	850982	..	28327
1827	141589	119670		265366	1028174	132680	1070765	..	35767
1828	163835	118400		262568	2336001	117965	1753338	8d. or in ships of Naples or Sicily, 9d.	58471
1829	119928	114077		253350	1153835	187501	1334759	Do. do. 10d.	45155
1830	113891	118158		261670	2791057	221028	2147876	..	71760
1831	212900	149018		330341	4158917	672852	1928892	..	64243
1832	165658	142717		316697	110822	819595	1284180	..	43350
1833	142539	140445		311063	1891918	397367	1368217	..	45743
1834	192785	163563	1 2 2*	242080	2320638	234930	2234218	4l 4s. per ton.*	46579
1835									

* I do not know whether the reduced duty which was enacted 3rd July, 1834, came into operation.

WEIGHTS AND MEASURES.—*Weights* as established by Act of Parliament, dated 24th May, 1828.

The British imperial Troy pound of 5,760 grains to be the only standard of weight; 24 of such grains a calco, 20 calchi an ounce, and 12 ounces a libbra sottile, or pound light weight, for precious metals and drugs; and 7,000 of such grains a libbra grossa, or pound great weight, equal to the English pound avoirdupois, with the parts and multiple of 16 drams an ounce, 16 ounces a pound, 100 pounds a talento.

Measures, as established by Act of Parliament, dated 24th May, 1828.

The British imperial standard yard to be the only standard measure of extension; one-third of the said yard a foot, one-twelfth of the said foot an inch, $5\frac{1}{2}$ such yards a camaco, 220 such yards a stadis, and 1,760 such yards a mile.

The British imperial standard gallon to be the only standard measure of capacity; the Chilo measure for grain to contain 8 of such gallons, or 64 duotoli; and the Ionian barrel to contain 16 gallons, or 128 duotoli.

MONETARY SYSTEM.—Accounts are kept in sterling money; the following are the coins in circulation.

Coins.

		Subdivision of Coins in Circulation.	Gross Weight in Grains Troy.	Alloy per Cent.	Rate Established per Tariff.
					£. s. d.
Gold	British currency	..	..	..	.. ..
	Spanish doubloons	1/2 1/4 1/8	416 1/2	..	3 6 0
Silver	British currency	..	..	6 2-3rds	.. ..
	Spanish pillar dollars	1/2 1/4 1/8 1-16th	416 1/2	9 3/4	0 4 4
	Imperial Maria Theresa ditto	1/4	431	10 1/2	0 4 2
	Venetian St. Mark ditto	1/2 1/4 1/8	432	10 1/4	0 4 2
Copper.—Ionian currency, pieces of		..	73	..	0 0 0 1/4

The only coinage of the States is a copper currency to the amount of 10,000*l.* sterling, in farthings.

The general circulating medium is Spanish dollars, in which description of coin, mostly, the States receive for staple produce exported to the amount of about 275,000*l.* sterling annually, exclusive of returns from a considerable capital employed by shipowners in the Levant trade, remittances received for subsistence of the troops, &c.; and in the same specie (Spanish dollars) pay for the article of bread corn alone, imported into the States from the Black Sea and Italy, to the amount of about 170,000*l.* sterling per annum: the quantity of bread corn grown in the island being equal only to one-fourth of the consumption.

Since June, 1825, British silver currency to the amount of 70,000*l.* sterling has been received from England and thrown into circulation; but, judging from the receipts for public duties and rents, and recent state of balances in the respective treasuries, including the military chest, it would appear that the total amount of British silver now remaining in the States does not exceed 25,000*l.* sterling, and that there has been withdrawn from circulation of this description of money 45,000*l.* for remittances to Malta, &c., by regiments returning to England, and for payment of articles imported by British trading vessels.

Course of Exchange.—The following rates of exchange may be quoted as nearly stationary for some months past at Corfu.

London - -	52 pence per dollar at	4*s.* 4d.
Trieste - -	$2\frac{2}{13}$ florins	,,
Venice - -	$6\frac{1}{3}$ lori of Austria	,,
Ancona - -	$1\frac{1}{100}$ scudo	,,
Naples - -	126 grani	,,

Government bills, if paid for in British currency, at the rate of 100*l.* for 101*l.* 10*s.* currency.

There is no paper money in the islands, and it is desirable that a bank should be established at Corfu, there being none in existence. The bank projected should be on the Vienna principle, namely, lending money on the security of a cargo, or on goods, houses, lands, &c. I understand that an English company are now establishing a bank at Athens, an extension of its branches to the Ionian islands will probably follow. The want of such establishments may be judged of by the following as a familiar illustration. Take a currant field or olive grove—the case is equally applicable to either—the owner of the land lets this to a second party who puts the plant into the ground; this is generally done from a non-desire to cultivate, or from a want of funds. The second party, for the same reasons, lets it—that is to say ground and plant to a third party, which is the peasant who cultivates. At the commencement of the year, the peasant is in want of money for the maintenance of his family, and to commence training the plant, which is rather expensive. To do this, he goes to a currant salesman (that is the party who purchase from the grower for the merchant) and borrows whatever he may want at about 20 per cent. for the period; in general the lender is the first party who receives from the peasant an agreement to deliver his fruit to him at the end of the season as a security. The peasant takes his produce at the appointed time to the lender, who secures himself, his interest and the second party, before the peasant is thought of. Whatever weight the latter may deliver, the salesman is sure to rob him; in price he is obliged to take whatever is offered, so that by the time all these people are paid, the poor peasant has little to receive, and to starve through the winter till borrowing time comes

again. The evils of such a system, where property *is minutely* subdivided, may well be conceived; indeed so minute is the subdivision of property that half a dozen persons will be found claiming the produce of a single olive tree! The law of *Colonia*, as it is thus termed, certainly requires reform, and a good system of banking would, I think, prove a remedy.

COMMERCE.—The trade of the Ionian islands is considerable, and increasing so far as the disturbed state of the adjoining countries can be supposed to admit of. The following shews the shipping employed since 1827.

Years.	INWARDS—FROM			OUTWARDS—TO		
	Great Britain.	Foreign States.	Total.	Great Britain.	Foreign States.	Total.
	Tons.	Tons.	Tons.	Tons.	Tons.	Tons.
1827	35,365	336,957	372,322	34,286	331,188	365,474
1828	28,038	311,714	339,752	26,934	308,882	335,816
1829	25,531	250,447	275,978	23,244	264,112	287,356
1830	24,673	201,567	226,240	22,537	208,707	231,244
1831	22,101	172,776	194,877	23,081	176,794	199,875
1832	21,004	219,712	240,716	21,889	222,659	244,548
1833	25,941	228,968	254,909	24,449	231,383	255,832
1834	29,275	269,769	299,044	29,028	267,358	296,386
1835						

A more detailed view of the shipping inwards and outwards for 1832 is thus shewn.

Shipping Inwards.

Years.	Ionian.	British.	Austrian.	Russian.	French.	Neapolitan.	Papal.	Sardinian.	Turkish.	Greek.	All Others.	Total.
	Tons.	Tons.	Tons.	Tons.	Tons.	Tons.	Tons.	Tons.	Tons.	Tons.	Tons.	Tons.
1832	125873	21004	39094	10875	1353	6164	2129	5058	2780	24212	2174	240716
1834	146734	29275	50283	5069	4873	15817	1278	8035	4597	31380	1703	299044

Shipping Outwards.

Years.	Ionian.	British.	Austrian.	Russian.	French.	Neapolitan.	Papal.	Sardinian.	Turkish.	Greek.	All Others.	Total.
	Tons.	Tons.	Tons.	Tons.	Tons.	Tons.	Tons.	Tons.	Tons.	Tons.	Tons.	Tons.
1832	128511	21889	38610	12833	1359	5969	2568	5039	1853	24610	1277	244548
1834	148856	29028	49265	4841	4962	14584	1360	7908	4492	29592	1498	296386

There are no consecutive returns of the commerce of the Union; the following shews the imports into the Ionian isles for the year 1834:—

Sugar, lbs. 962,660, value 20,559*l.*; coffee, lbs. 295,201, val. 8,852*l.*; drugs, medicines and dye stuffs, val. 10,295*l.*; cotton goods, 75,448*l.*; hemp and flax goods, 11,616*l.*; woollens, 22,308*l.*; silk goods, 4,230*l.*; glass, 3,887*l.*; earthenware, 3,532*l.*; furniture, 3,479*l.*; hardware, 10,391*l.*; nails, 2,468*l.*; cordage, lbs. 171,775, val. 2,905*l.*; all other manufactured articles, 36,653*l.* Raw silk, lbs. 1,597, val. 763*l.*; raw cotton, lbs. 94,694. 2,844*l.*; wool, lbs. 5,529. 77*l.*; hemp and flax, lbs. 117,084. 2,732*l.* (For large casks) staves, No. 268,545, hoops, No. 603,352, val. 5,173*l.*; iron, lbs. 338,422, 1,713*l.*; timber, val. 16,735*l.*; firewood, 6,782*l.*; wheat, bushels, 766,208, val. 152,245*l.*; maize, bushels, 227,056. 26,798*l.*; barley and oats, bushels, 185,162. 19,077*l.*; beans and other legumes, bushels, 15,724. 2,783*l.*; potatoes, lbs. 775,946. 1,711*l.*; rice, lbs. 950,594. 7,436*l.*; macaroni, lbs. 125,594. 1,146*l.*; flour, lbs. 154,353. 1,119*l.*; biscuit, lbs. 130,657. 825*l.*; cheese, lbs. 799,460. 11,854*l.*; butter, lbs. 70,293. 2,616*l.*; salt meat, lbs. 29,097. 774*l.*; stock-fish, &c. lbs. 1,036,158. 8,401*l.*; caviare, &c. lbs. 49,664. 2,251*l.*; onions and garlic, 1,717*l.*; fruits, dried, 4,513*l.*; poultry, head, 28,546. 1,119*l.*; wines, foreign, barrels, 366. 3,103*l.*; spirits, do. bls. 549. 1,413*l.*; cattle, nead, 9,612. 32,904*l.*; horses, mules and asses, No. 632. 3,910*l.*; sheep, goats and pigs, No. 76,761. 30,098*l.*; tobacco, lbs. 73,066. 16,220*l.*; all other articles, 16,220*l.*; total value of imports, 609,977*l.*

EXPORTS FROM THE IONIAN ISLES FOR THE YEAR 1834.

Produce.—Olive oil, bls. 197,771, value 349,029*l.*; currants, lbs. 19,568,177, val. 182,238*l.*; wine, bls. 15,650. 4,865*l.*; spirits, bls. 1,180. 1,380*l.*; valonia, lbs. 180,195. 200*l.*; salt, bls. 80,942. 1,012*l.*; all other produce, 2,118*l.*

Native Manufactures.—Cotton, 428*l.*; silk, 253*l.*; woollens and goat hair, 36*l.*; earthenware, 385*l.*; coarse clothing, 283*l.*; shoes, 49*l.*; hides, No. 1,163. 362*l.*; cordage, lbs.

170. 8*l.*; hardware, 222*l.*; casks for currants, No. 4,099. 3,017*l.*; barrels for oil and wine, 443. 63*l.*; soap, lbs. 1,085,897. 10,865*l.*; all other articles, 1,106*l.*; foreign manufactures, 7,730*l.*; total, 565,651*l.*; transit, 130,239*l.*

Oil, wine and currants, the produce of the islands, pay on exportation a duty of 18 per cent. *ad valorem;* soap do. 8 do. Vessels purchased by foreigners, Corfu and Zante, 6, and Cephalonia, 5 per cent. All other articles are free on export. The import duties are light in amount.

GOVERNMENT.—In order to understand the present government of the Septinsular Republic, it will be necessary to premise some details.*

In the month of September, 1809, in consequence of some representations which had been made to Lord Collingwood and Lieut. General Sir John Stuart, of the desire of the inhabitants of Cephalonia and Zante to liberate themselves from the yoke of France, and of their wish for a British force to assist them in such undertaking, an expedition sailed from Messina under the command of Brigadier General Oswald, and Captain Spranger of the royal navy, and proceeded immediately to the execution of this service.

The occupation of the harbour of Cephalonia, which would tend to neutralize the advantage possessed by the enemy in holding that of Corfu, was also assigned as an object for the undertaking. The following was Lord Collingwood's letter of instructions:—

* I am indebted for these and other interesting matters to Lieutenant-General Sir Hudson Lowe, an officer through whose bravery, zeal, and prudence, the Ionian Islands were mainly brought under our management. I have perused a great portion of the official documents relative to Sir Hudson's mode of administering the government of Cephalonia, and am bound to admit that they display, in a striking degree, a wise liberality and statesman-like views which I was not prepared to meet with. I had considered Sir Hudson Lowe in the light of an aristocratical despot, and was much gratified to find that he possessed and evinced far more genuine freedom of principles and practice than many of those who make great professions.

Off Toulon, Aug. 3, 1809.

'As it would be highly advantageous to the common cause of nations which are opposed to the violations committed by the French, and conducive to the good of His Majesty's service that the troops of that nation should be expelled from the islands of Cephalonia and Zante, and the government of the Septinsular restored; and it being represented from different quarters that the inhabitants of those islands, impatient under their sufferings, are ready to revolt against the power which oppresses them, whenever they are supported by a power which will give them a fair prospect of success, you are hereby required and directed, &c.

'On the reduction of any port, the Septinsular flag must be hoisted, and not the British; which (conforming to the general conduct you are to preserve) will signify to the native inhabitants that it is not a conquest you are engaged in, but the expulsion of the French, to liberate them from bondage.

'The ministry who shall be appointed for the administration of the government should be approved by the British officers;—those who have held offices under the French, should be excluded.

'Every Frenchman, whatever may be his employment or occupation, should be sent off from the island; and this measure should include as well civilians as military.

'Native inhabitants who have taken a part in the French government, must be excluded from office in the new arrangement. They should retire to their houses in the country, and remain there under the protection of the British. No retrospect of past political opinions, or punishment for them, should be attempted; but on any act of opposition to the reformed government, they become subject to the law, and should be sent off the island. The members of the new government must be counselled to moderation and a temperate exercise of their authority, making the change a general benefit to the community.'

It was originally intended to have made the first debarka-

tion at Cephalonia, but at the suggestion of Mr. Foresti (a native of Zante, and formerly His Majesty's resident with the Septinsular Republic) the operation was commenced on the 2d October with an attack on the island of Zante, the troops landing without opposition, as well as without receiving any aid. The French garrison retired immediately into the fortress, and surrendered as prisoners of war the next morning.

The day following the troops re-embarked, and sailed for Cephalonia, where neither resistance nor assistance from the people was met with; the French commander retiring into the fortress, and surrendering himself and garrison in the same manner, as prisoners of war.

The island of Ithaca, summoned by Major Church, of the Quartermaster-General's Department, and by Captain Cranley of the Royal Navy, followed the same course.

His Majesty's ship Spartan, commanded by Captain Brenton, and a detachment of troops under Major Clarke, sailed for the island of Cerigo, where more resistance was met; but after three days' operations against the castle, this island surrendered also.

The following proclamation was published in all the islands, immediately on the landing of the troops:—

Proclamation to the Inhabitants of Cephalonia, Zante, and others of the Seven Islands.

'It having been represented to the Commander-in-Chief of His Britannic Majesty's sea and land forces in the Mediterranean, that the inhabitants of Cephalonia, Zante, and other of the Seven Islands, wearied and oppressed with the violence and exactions of the French Government, under which their commerce has been annihilated and their personal freedom invaded, are desirous to shake off the yoke, their Excellencies Vice-Admiral Lord Collingwood, K.B., and Lieutenant-General Sir John Stuart, K.B., Commanding-in-Chief the respective sea and land forces, have directed such aid to be given as may enable them to expel their pre-

sent oppressors, and re-establish a free and independent government with the uncontrolled exercise of their civil and religious rights.

The undersigned, Commanding the divisions of His Majesty's sea and land forces, charged with the execution of this interesting and important duty, call, therefore, on the inhabitants of all ranks to come forward and share in the glorious labour of expelling the common enemy.

We present ourselves to you, inhabitants of Cephalonia—not as invaders, with views of conquest, but as allies who hold forth to you the advantages of British protection, in the freedom and extension of your commerce, and in the general prosperity of your island: Contrast these obvious advantages with the privations you have laboured under since you were passed over from the yoke of Russia to that of France, and deprived, at one blow, of your independence as a nation, and your rights of freedom as men.

We demand from you no exertions but such as are necessary for your own liberation—no other aid than what reciprocal advantage requires.

Hostility, whether shewn in acts of opposition to us, or in aid to the enemy, must of course be repressed; but no retrospect will be made to the past—no other distinctions suffered than what results from present opportunities of zeal, courage, and patriotism.

Given under our hand, on board His Majesty's ship Warrior, in Zante roads, this 2d day of October, 1809.

(Signed) JOHN OSWALD, Brigadier-General.
J. D. SPRANGER, Captain of His Majesty's ship Warrior, and senior Naval Officer.

This Proclamation contains all the stipulations that were entered into with the inhabitants, on the islands being liberated.

The capitulations for the surrender of the fortresses only regarded the military.

The inhabitants of all the islands gave way to great demonstrations of joy on finding the French troops expelled, but had made no movement of themselves to favour such operation.

At Zante, where Brigadier-General Oswald established his head quarters, he named a British officer to act as chief of the government, with four counsellors who, united together, formed a council of presidency, but in which the voice of the chief was decisive, independent of the opinion of the others.

An administrative body was further formed of 40 members, whose attributes were principally to elect by secret ballot the members of the different tribunals and magistracies (though these were however in the first instance named by the General), and to pass, by vote, their approbations of all sums to be expended out of the revenues of the islands, according to such estimates as might be previously laid before him.

They were further at liberty to discuss and vote upon all civil matters presented to their deliberation by the chief of the government and his council, but had no right to propose topics of themselves. The members of the government and administrative body were nominated only for two years, but declared re-eligible, at the expiration of such period, to the same offices they might have held before.

The military expenses were submitted to the vote of the administrative body in the same way as those incurred in a civil account; but as no express article exists on this head, it appears to have been explained and understood that the order of the General was binding for any sums he might think necessary to direct the issue of from the revenues for the following heads of military service, viz. repairs of fortifications; quarters and accommodation for the troops, with all the contingent expense of the engineer artillery and quarter-master general's department; as also the establishment of an insular naval and military force. The vote therefore may be considered as a matter of form. Though not expressly directed in any case, except in the election of members, that the votes

should be given by secret ballot; this mode of voting passed into practice, and was introduced in the determination of all questions submitted to the administrative body.

The administration of justice was vested in two justices of peace; a criminal and civil tribunal of first instance; and a tribunal of appeal. The sentence of the tribunal of appeal final only when in uniformity to that of the tribunal, from whose decision the appeal had been made. If at variance with it, there was no other appeal than to the general himself, or to such court as he might, in extraordinary cases, chuse to delegate the hearing of the cause.

A sindic of the town of Zante, a magistracy of health, and magistracy of finance, composed of three members each, formed the other branches of public administration.

The tribunals and magistrates were all rendered liable for misdemeanors to be dismissed by the concurrent voice of the chief of the government and his counsellors.

An alteration was subsequently introduced into the plan of provisional government, whereby the voice of the governor was declared to be decisive only in case of *police;* in all other points that of the counsellors was declared as of equal validity with his, and matters were thus to be decided by the majority of voices. The government also assumed to itself on all occasions the title of the presidency.

In the Island of Cephalonia, Lieut. Colonel Lowe had been placed in the command, and Ithaca declared to be dependent also on his orders.

He received a copy of the Zante provisional government from Brigadier-General Oswald, with directions to frame a similar one for Cephalonia, with such variations only as local circumstances might indicate, but adhering to the general form and principle.

A plan of provisional government was formed resembling that of Zante in every particular, except that the counsellors and administrative body, tribunals and magistracies were declared not re-eligible to the same employments after two years exercise of their functions, except in the proportion of

one member for each tribunal, or magistracy; and that in cases where the sentence of the tribunal of appeal did not confirm that of first instance, an appeal was authorised for obtaining the final determination, to the tribunal of appeal of another island.

The voice of the chief of the government was, as in the original plan for the provisional government of Zante, made decisive in all cases; and as the subsequent alteration in that of Zante was never communicated to the island, it still remained the same; and all acts continued to be transacted in the name of the chief of the government and his council, the title of presidency never having been assumed.

In regard to military expenses, a sum of money was demanded from the vote of the administrative body on account; and at the conclusion of every two months the detail of expenditure, with the documents, was also submitted to its inspection, and a vote of approval required.

The mode of voting by secret ballot was used only in the election of members for the tribunals and magistracy, in all other points the votes were collected openly.

In other respects the tribunals were established on nearly the same footing.

The island of Ithaca was organized in a similar manner.

In the month of March, 1810, an expedition was undertaken, chiefly at the suggestion of Lieut. Col. Lowe, whose situation in the command of Cephalonia and Ithaca had afforded him some particular opportunities to judge of its necessity, against the Island of Santa Maura, where the enemy, by keeping up a large garrison, and giving every encouragement to the Albanian outlaws and robbers, was not only in a position to threaten the security and tranquillity of the islands which had been liberated, but by fomenting a spirit of revolt and discord among the Greeks and Turks of the neighbouring continent, was gradually undermining the authority of the Turkish governors, particularly that of the Vizir Ali Pacha, and thus paving the way for his own establishment in the ports and towns along the coast, with the ultimate view of possessing

himself of the Morea. The establishment of the British in Zante and Cephalonia had checked the course of his intrigues in the latter place, and the capture of Santa Maura put an effectual stop to them. The families of the chiefs of the outlaws and insurgents were seized, a total bar put to their depredations, and such security as well as tranquillity immediately obtained for the islands already liberated (where the enemy's partisans, from a false opinion of our weakness, had began to raise their heads so high as to require very coercive measures of police to keep them in due order), that had not the fortress of Santa Maura been so much injured by the siege as to require a long time for its repair, a diminution of the force for the defence of the other islands might have immediately taken place.

After the capture of Santa Maura, Brigadier-General Oswald made the following dispositions:—Zante, with Cerigo, he assumed the particular direction of himself, as the right division of his command; Cephalonia, Ithaca, and Santa Maura, were placed under Lieut. Col. Lowe's orders, with a general superintendance over the civil as well as military department. His quarters were removed from Cephalonia to Santa Maura, and the command of Cephalonia placed in the hands of Major De Bosset.

The form of a general government was now adopted by Brigadier-General Oswald, who in addition to the establishment of a tribunal of appeal for the ultimate decision of all cases, instituted also a tribunal of cassation, for such cases as might have been decided upon in prevarication of the forms of law.

The duties of the general government, as exercised by him, were principally as follow:*—

1. Military command, with its naval and political relations.

2. Receipt of all accounts, and settlements of the public revenues and expenditure, whether civil or military.

3. Confirmation of all contracts entered into by the local

* I give these details as affording examples for our military and naval officers when placed in similar circumstances.

government, with his authority for farming the public revenues.

4. Appointment to all new offices, except such as by the provisional plans of government were to be elected by the ballot.

5. Decision on all appeals from the acts or decrees of the local government; the acts of the tribunals admitting of an appeal in course of law, it could only be in very extraordinary cases that reclamations against them could be heard.

6. The nomination of extraordinary commissions, principally in cases between relations, when the members were chosen by mutual consent, but occasionally in other cases, where the local influence of individuals was supposed to be too powerful for the obtaining of strict justice to the weak party; and in complex cases, which either the law did not reach, or which could be best settled by arbitration. Such commissions have however rarely been assembled, except by the joint concurrence of both parties; if done otherwise, it can barely be warranted by the practice of times of revolution and great political changes.

7. Warrants or authorities for all military disbursements out of the sums furnished for such object from the island revenues.

8. Proclamations, orders, or regulations, particularly such as vary in any respect the forms and dispositions of the plans of provisional government, which the local authorities are otherwise bound to consider as their rule of conduct.

9. The determination of all questions of police, whether in reference to the internal or external affairs of the islands, or their relations to the neighbouring Ottoman territory.

10. Correspondence with the chiefs of the local governments, with his Majesty's Ministers and residents in Turkey, with the Ottoman commanders in Albania and the Morea.

The granting of passports and acceptation, of memorials, in all common cases, are matters which are usually left to the local governments.

The other duties of the chiefs of the local governments

were principally as follow:—the maintenance of a strict police, not however according to the French acceptation of that term, but on sound principles of equity and impartiality, and in strict adherence to the forms of law and justice. The cultivation of the good disposition of the inhabitants, particularly the peasantry and armed part of it, by protecting them against all acts of oppression and tyranny on the part of the great proprietors, particularly from those who hold offices in the government, who have too frequently the strongest inclination to abuse their power; and by seeing that strict justice is rendered to them in the different tribunals; the occasional assembly of the cernide, or militia; the economy of public expenditure, neither recommending nor undertaking any work which is not correspondent to the revenues and state of the island, so as to leave always resources for general purposes.

The chiefs of the local government were directed not to attempt to govern too much by the hearing of parties, and intermeddling in cases pending before the tribunals; or by deciding on matters themselves without reference to the opinions of the counsellors; or by any public act to hold the place of law, or which may regard public expenditure without reference, where no inconvenience can result from delay to superior authority. As the chief of the local government was the only executive officer (for the tribunals were so hampered by forms that they could not arrest an individual without such previous examination as always afforded him time to escape), a discretional power was necessarily granted to him for the arrest of offenders.

A new constitution was prepared after Corfu was added to the other islands, and the civil government is now composed of a legislative assembly; of a senate; and of a judicial authority (see Constitutional Charter in Appendix.)

The *Legislative Assembly.*—This body consists of 40 members, including the president; of the 40, 11 are integral members, and 29 elected from the various islands in the following proportion: Corfu, 7; Cephalonia, 7; Zante, 7; Santa

Maura, 4; Ithaca, 1; Cerigo, 1; Paxo, 1. Each of the three last in the rotation in which they stand (exclusive of that island whose Regent becomes an integral member of the legislative assembly) elects a second. The members are elected (on a double list formed by a majority of the votes of the primary council), out of the body of the syndita of each island. (See Chap. iii. Art. 8. Constitutional Charter, Appendix.)

The elections, and all civil appointments, are valid for five years; and the session of the parliament of the states is held every two years.

The votes are *vivâ voce*, and the sittings open; 10 members, and the president or vice president, constitute a legal meeting; and conferences with the senate, &c. are managed by the 11 integral members of the assembly, who form, with their president, the primary council: These 11 integral members in the case of parliament dying a natural death (that is, having run its full course of five years), consist of the president and five members of the old senate; the four regents of the great island during the late parliament; and of one of the regents of the smaller islands: but in case of a dissolution, instead of the regents, the lord high commissioner names five members of the late legislative assembly.

The *Senate*, which forms the executive power, is composed of six, viz. five, and a president, entitled 'His Highness; while the senators are styled the 'Most Illustrious' (Prestantissima); the senators are elected out of the body of the legislative assembly in the following proportion, viz. Corfu, 1; Cephalonia, 1; Zante, 1; Santa Maura, 1; Ithaca, Cerigo and Paxo, 1. The power of placing a member of the assembly in nomination for a senator rests with the president, on an application being made to him in writing, signed by four members of that body and himself, demanding such nomination; and the president shall place in nomination any person when eight members make a demand; the election takes place three days at furthest after the meeting of the assembly, and is decided by the majority of votes, the president casting in case of an equality. The sanction of the lord high commissioner is necessary to the validity of the election. (See Appendix.) The

vacancies thus caused by the election of five members of the assembly to the senatorship are filled up by the transmission of double lists of names from the primary council to the syndita of each island. The senate remain in office five years; His Highness, the president half that period, eligible however to be re-appointed by the lord high commissioner. The senate names its own ministerial officers, with several exceptions, and it has the power of nominating to all situations under the *general* government; the regents to the different local governments; the judges in all the islands; and generally to all situations, except merely municipal ones, with certain renovations. During the recess of parliament the senate has the power of making regulations which have pro tempore the force of laws; it has the power of originating laws, as well as disallowing any passed by the legislative assembly.

The lord high commissioner is appointed by the colonial office, and is generally a military officer;* His Excellency appoints in each island a resident, or representative, of the lord high commissioner, who is a field officer of the regiments on duty in the islands. The regent, advocate, fiscal, secretary, and archivist of each island, are appointed by the senate, subject to the approbation of the lord high commissioner. The municipal administration of each island consists of five members, independent of the president (who is the regent), appointed by the syndita of each island; out of the body of the said syndita, from 'lists' of names sent in to the regent by the syndita, but scrutinized and regulated by the regent and his assessors. Ten members are chosen by the syndita from these 'lists;' and from these ten five are are selected by the regent to form the municipal body. (See Ch. iv. Art. 9, Constitutional Charter, Appendix.)

The qualifications of the syndita, or "noble electors," I have not been able to ascertain with any accuracy; I understand that some votes are hereditary, but that pursuing any trade or business is a disqualification.

* One of the evils attendant on the appointment of a military lord high commissioner is that he appoints generally military men as residents at each island, who are removed with every change of troops, &c.

To form a legal meeting one half of the syndita of each island must be present. For the other details of this unique form of government, I refer to the Charter.

For the respective powers of the assembly and senate, I refer to the Constitutional Charter in the Appendix, which those who are curious in examining the different forms of government will be interested in perusing; it owes, I believe, its origin to the late Sir Thomas Maitland, and is a singular specimen of constitution making. Without giving here any opinion as to its merits, I may express a regret that it is rather verbose and devoid of proper arrangement.

It is due to Sir Thomas to say that in every possible way, he strove to effect some amelioration in the condition of the people. The first great object he had in view, was to release the lower classes from the degraded subjection in which they were held by the nobles; to so great an extent was this carried as to nullify any attempt at truth or justice; perjury by wholesale was at the disposal of the landlord; from first to last this point was one continued struggle; the laws had so long been at the command of the higher classes, that not a court, or member of a court, was free from venality and corruption. Any man of a more uncompromising disposition must have succumbed to the many obstacles thrown in his way. Much was effected, yet much still remains to be done. There cannot be a doubt the constitution would have been of a much more liberal complexion, had not Sir Thomas Maitland been completely aware of the bondage of the lower classes. Allusion has before been made to the University, and the establishment of schools; in addition to these, roads were created in all the islands:—at Zante, a mole; Santa Maura, a pier; in Paxo, Cephalonia, and Corfu, markets and lighthouses, together with courts of justice, and a splendid palace for the Lord High Commissioner at Corfu; above all, a moral feeling was created, which, before the British assumed the protection, was unknown.

No man underwent more misrepresentation and vituperation than Sir Thomas Maitland. In his intercourse with the Greeks he displayed a shrewdness for which they, in their

vanity did not give him credit. In business he was indefatigable and systematic; rarely turned from his object when clear of its benefits; fortunate in those he chose to serve under him, who, notwithstanding his singularities, became attached to him personally. With Ali Pasha on one hand, and John Capo d'Istra on the other, Sir Thomas Maitland still managed to steer clear of all intrigue. Assailed from home with letters of recommendation for impoverished dependents—importuned in his government for pension and place by all the discontented and dissatisfied Greeks, he yet contrived to leave the finances of the islands in a flourishing condition, with money in the treasury;—in a word, as his policy has been developed, the Ionians have learned to appreciate its worth.

THE JUDICIAL AUTHORITY in each island consists of three tribunals,—a civil, a criminal, and a commercial; and there is a court of appeal in each island: the judges being appointed by the senate, subject to the approval of the Lord High Commissioner. Independent of these courts, there are in each island tribunals for the trial of minor criminal offences, and for the adjudication of small civil suits; these are presided over by justices of the peace for the island, appointed by the regent of the same.

At the seat of government there is, in addition to the foregoing courts, a superior or high court of appeal denominated 'the Supreme Council of Justice,' and consisting of four ordinary members (judges)—two English and two Greek, and two extraordinary members, viz: the Lord High Commissioner, and his highness the President of the Senate. For the power of the courts, see the Constitutional Charter. Trial by Jury does not exist;* nor are there any assessors to aid the Judges. No crimes but those of murder and high treason are punishable with death,—which infliction is now rarely suffered. The following remarks by Lord Nugent, in his recent and parting address to the Senate and Legislative Assembly, are deserving of a place here, as they serve to shew how much the character of a people may be moulded by their laws.

* Lord Nugent contemplated an improved mode of trial by a jury, who should, with the judges, hold assizes in each island as on a circuit.

'You have lately achieved a great benefit, and I trust a lasting one, for your country, in laying the foundation of a good system of criminal law. You have abolished the Venetian statute — the worst, the most tyrannical code certainly that has ever lasted down into civilized times; a book of laws till now a living symbol, now only a curious monument, of by-gone iniquity, absurdity, and cruelty; powerless, it is true, of late years, and unapplied, thanks to the genius of the times and the genius of your Government, but monstrous in its principles, monstrous in its barbarity, and monstrous in its folly: a code by which the crimes of petty offenders were made punishable with execrable torture, while the worst violences of the powerful were not only unchecked, but encouraged and invited into action; a code which, after denouncing the most unequal and unjust punishment against the offences it defined, left all that was undefined to the caprice and the passions of judges. I need scarcely remind you of the 29th chapter of that statute — the chapter, as it was called, *De Maleficiis*, which left it to the judge to determine upon the criminality of any act which had not been declared by law a crime, and then to punish it according to whatever measure might seem fit to his 'conscience and discretion.' Under such a code, weak where it should have been severe, and arbitrary where it should have been precise, I can only say that it was owing to the wisdom and humanity of the judges, and to the good dispositions of the people, that the people have been generally an innocent people, and that the judges have given judgment with justice.

'The principles of the code which you have carried provisionally into effect, are, I am sure, founded in justice and wisdom, and will tend to the general happiness of these States. Some things may remain to be corrected in the details. I trust that the Parliament will afford a fair time for it to be tried in practice before further revision. And it is to me a subject of greater happiness than I can describe, to see you, after nearly four centuries, freed from the worse than tyranny of the written law of Venice. Worse than tyranny! There might at times be a good despot, but the people could never have justice under the written dispensation of Venetian law. And the justice which was dispensed to them in practice, was owing merely to a sense of right in contradiction to the law by those who administered it.

'The next things for you to turn your attention to are a code of judicial organization and of procedure. Tribunals must be established of first judgment and of final appeal, which may administer the law justly, cheaply, and quickly. And in a code of procedure nothing can be more important than to establish good and fixed laws of evidence. This may be said, perhaps, to be the most important part of every system of law; if possible, more important than that which relates to the formation of the courts. Courts might be formed almost in any way to work well

under a good law of evidence; but without a good law of evidence, under no organization of the courts can the ends of justice be obtained. In a good law of evidence all men have a deep and direct interest; for there is no act of our lives, and nothing of which we are witnesses in the acts of others, which may not at some time become matter of evidence in the courts of judicial enquiry. The law of procedure, as it relates to civil cases, may be said to be in some respects imperfect still in almost every nation of Europe. In this respect it will probably be your opinion that you cannot do better than consult, as you have done in your criminal code, the laws of other nations; above all, perhaps, the French and Neapolitan; adopting from each what may appear best adapted to simplify and give effect to the course of civil justice, with reference particularly to the customs which regard property in these countries. But with regard to criminal procedure and to the law of evidence in criminal cases, as far as I, not being a lawyer, may venture an opinion, I would strongly advise you to conform, as nearly as possible, to that which was practised in England.

'To describe any part of the institutions which, for a long course of time, have prevailed in these States, as being radically bad in principle, and leading to the worst consequences, is at once to challenge that which long habit has rendered familiar to the people, and perhaps too that which their opinions, formed upon that habit, may in some measure have sanctioned among them. And yet I must frankly say, that the whole of the Venetian law of evidence, by which criminal cases are still tried, appears to me to be so constructed as to throw every impediment in the way of justice, to encourage perjury, and to lead to acts of personal vengeance among those who may have failed to obtain redress by law. I had occasion, in a former address, to make some observations on these great defects in the present law of evidence, and of the difficulty under it of bringing any criminal to conviction. I observed that, where a Government was carried on as that of the Venetians was, upon arbitrary principles, and working by secret or violent agency, that Government had a direct interest in weakening legal proof. They who work by means of spies, of assassins, or of those who hurry away suspected persons to secret imprisonment, do not require strong laws to assist them in this system. On the contrary, they require weak laws to ensure the impunity of their instruments, in case of those instruments failing in their enterprizes. A system of strict and searching law is of the very essence of free government. The first radical fault of your law of evidence is, that of the testimony of the injured party not being admitted; a principle totally inconsistent with any reasonable mode of judicial inquiry. In many, in most cases, the testimony of the injured party is the very best testimony that can be obtained.

'I have heard it urged that the prosecutor may possibly have some

motive of enmity or vengeance, and that, therefore, his evidence ought not to be taken. But why might not this motive equally influence any other witness on the trial? I have heard it said that his evidence ought not to be taken, because the denial on the part of the person accused is of equal value, and counterbalances it. It appears to me that a more unreflecting observation cannot be made. How of equal value? It is possible that a vindictive man may falsely accuse; but it is quite certain that an accused man will always deny the accusation. The bare denial, then, does not *à priori* counterbalance the bare accusation. But if it did, the process of cross-questioning the witnesses on both sides is the process by which the real value of every man's evidence in conflicting testimony is at once ascertained. The practice of excluding evidence appears to be based upon two great fallacies. The one is the confusion made between evidence being admissible, and evidence being on that account always taken *à priori* as credible. The other fallacy is, the supposition that the judge must necessarily be bound to determine according to the number of witnesses, and not according to the probabilities of truth, as it may appear upon the comparison, and upon the cross examination of the evidence. In private life you would always endeavour to form your judgment by hearing all that could be said by all parties who profess to know any thing about the matter in dispute. Why not then, in a public trial, hear the evidence of him who, from the nature of the case, must know most about the matter; judging afterwards of the probabilities, by a careful weighing of the possible motives, of the known or suspected characters of the witnesses, and then by severely cross-examining and confronting testimony. The four pirates who were last summer convicted, and whose lives were spared by you at the gallows' foot, how were they convicted? They had maltreated and tortured some of the crew of the boat which they had boarded. What was the result? That the persons whom they had so maltreated were disqualified from bearing evidence against them. Fortunately for the ends of justice, there were two in the boat who had not suffered any personal injury, and by their evidence the pirates were convicted. But what is the practical lesson which this impediment of evidence teaches to other similar ruffians? Why, to personally maltreat all whom they may find in the vessel they plunder, and so ensure there being no witnesses to prove the fact.

I said that the present system perpetuates personal vengeance, and generalizes perjury. It facilitates the impunity of an offender who has perhaps committed a slight injury. The offended party who has failed to obtain reparation from the laws, perhaps waits in consequence his opportunity of revenge, and obtains it by retaliating a severer injury. The feud continues in a series of alternate violences, each successive injury on either side becoming more severe than the preceding act which has provoked it, till the course of mutual conflicts which originated perhaps in an

unpunished assault, may terminate perhaps in assassination. It generalizes perjury. For where the injured party must depend on others to prove his case, he is tempted to suborn others to say more than has come within their knowledge; and witnesses for the accused party, knowing that they cannot be confronted by the accuser, are tempted the more to disguise or falsify the facts. And true, indeed, is what I said on my first arrival in these States, and all my experience of your people since has only served to confirm me in the opinion, that their faults have been the faults of bad laws, while all their virtues are their own; and, under such imperfect and demoralizing laws as the Venetians left to you, the small proportion that there is of crime in these States, proves your people to be a well-feeling, and in their general habits, an innocent and a good people.

Lawyers are exceedingly abundant, and it has been calculated that every tenth individual is connected with the legal profession, who, no doubt, have sometimes reaped rich harvests when suits have been protracted through several successive generations.

The laws were partly Venetian, partly Greek;—a code has now been digested for the islands, and is much needed, particularly as regards the law of entail, now abolished, and that singular enactment by which a purchaser was compelled to restore a property to a seller several years after the bargain, for the same price at which it was vended, if the vender tender the original sum; a measure that of course struck a blow at all improvement.

State of the Goals in the Ionian Isles for the year ending January, 1835.

Islands.	Total Number of Prisoners.		Number of Debtors.		Number of Misdemeanours.		Number of Felons.		Number of Tried Prisoners.		Number of Untried Prisoners.		Prisoners Employed.		Prisoners not Employed.	Imprisonment for Offences within the Prison.	Cases of Sickness and Death.		
	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Hard Labour.	Not Hard Labour.			Cases of Sickness in the Year.	Greatest No. of Sick at one time.	Deaths.
Corfu	137	4	22	-	54	4	61	-	127	3	10	1	28	21	92	32	626	12	4
Cephalonia	138	4	1	-	53	1	84	3	113	4	25	-	4	55	83	28	100	17	1
Zante	86	2	1	-	6	-	79	2	58	2	28	-	11	-	77	-	25	6	-
Santa Maura	40	4	-	-	13	3	27	1	29	1	11	3	19	1	24	118	301	18	1
Ithaca	2	1	-	-	2	1	-	-	2	-	-	1	-	-	3	-	1	1	-
Cerigo	2	1	-	-	2	1	-	-	1	1	1	-	-	1	2	-	1	1	-
Paxo	2	-	-	-	2	-	-	-	2	-	-	-	-	-	2	-	1	1	-
Total	407	16	24	-	132	10	251	6	332	11	75	5	62	78	283	178	1,055	56	6

The gaols seem to be well managed; wherever the localities will admit, the debtors are separated from the felons; the cost

for each prisoner is about 5*d.* per diem; the average of hard labour is nine hours per diem, regulated according to the season. In Cephalonia those who work at the hand corn mills receive *half* of their earnings, the goaler one quarter, and the remainder is paid into the police chest. The prisoners are supplied with coarse clothing.

MILITARY FORCE.—The following shews the

Return of the Numbers, and distribution of the Effective Force, Officers, Non-Commissioned Officers, and Rank and File, of the British Army in the Ionian Isles in each year since 1815; including Artillery and Engineers.

	Officers present, or on detached duty at the Station.											Serjeants.	Drummers.	Rank and File.
	Colonels.	Lieut.-Colonels.	Majors.	Captains.	Lieutenants.	Ensigns.	Paymasters.	Adjutants.	Quarter Masters.	Surgeons.	Assistant Surgeons.			
25th January, 1816	..	5	6	45	89	30	4	5	6	3	8	290	108	4320
1817	..	2	4	26	57	28	3	4	3	2	6	195	84	3145
1818	..	3	5	22	41	19	3	2	3	2	6	135	58	2431
1819	..	5	5	32	45	29	3	3	3	3	8	166	70	3100
1820	..	5	5	20	42	23	3	3	2	4	5	141	78	2761
1821	..	6	8	33	56	35	4	5	4	5	5	156	93	3046
1822	..	5	8	31	60	41	6	6	6	6	5	163	72	3596
1823	..	4	11	35	76	27	6	6	6	4	7	153	66	3463
1824	..	5	10	32	45	29	5	4	5	3	7	170	69	3566
1825	..	6	9	30	41	27	5	5	6	4	7	154	65	3166
1826	..	5	6	33	50	18	6	6	6	3	9	184	64	3080
1827	1	7	5	36	47	20	5	4	6	4	9	191	66	3127
1828	1	5	4	32	48	22	6	5	6	6	6	194	66	3342
1829	1	7	6	44	67	31	7	6	6	6	9	247	83	4322
1830	1	7	7	47	56	31	7	8	8	7	8	257	87	4445
1st January, 1831	1	5	5	30	56	22	6	7	7	7	5	225	77	3745
1832	1	6	5	29	42	16	6	5	6	7	6	193	63	3077
1833	1	5	4	30	38	18	5	6	6	5	7	187	63	2983

The distribution of troops in 1834 was, Corfu, 1,524; Vido, 522; Paxo, 23; Santa Maura, 125; Cephalonia, 367; Zante, 304; Ithaca and Calomos, 50; Cerigo, 67; total, 2,982.

There are six barracks for the garrison at Corfu, viz. one in the citadel, one at Fort Raymond, one at Fort Neuf, and another for a small detachment at Vido Island.

The barrack in the citadel is a very good stone building of four stories, including the basement story, situated at the foot of the rock on which the citadel is built, and open to the north. Between the rock and the back of the barrack, the space is, in some places, very confined—not exceeding 15

feet; but from the front of the barrack to the line wall, there is a space of fully 20 ordinary paces, and the ventilation on that side is complete. These barracks form two sides of an oblong square, the larger running N. and S., the shorter E. and W. The foundation of these barracks stands above 40 feet above the level of the sea.

Fort Raymond barracks are also of stone, and are situated in the town, at the south-western extremity of the esplanade; their aspect is southerly, towards Castrades Bay and the Lake of Calachiopulo. They are considerably elevated, however, over them; for the top of the work at Fort Raymond is 90 feet above the level of the lake. There are some bomb-proofs attached to these barracks, which lie below the level of the works, but they are not occupied.

Fort Neuf is situated on a rocky eminence at the back of the town, at the north-western extremity of the works, with an easterly aspect, looking towards the harbour and town. It is 100 feet above the level of the sea, but is itself commanded by the citadel. In it are two sets of stone barracks; one at the summit, and another about one-third from the top of the rock.

The barracks on the small island of Vido, formerly occupied by the troops, were of wood, very badly constructed, and excessively unhealthy. They are now abandoned, and the small garrison of 30 men are accommodated in very airy and comfortable bomb-proofs.

Soldiers' Diet.—The soldier's ration is one pound of bread, one pound of meat, and one pint of wine daily, with two pounds of wood for cooking. He is provided out of his pay with a hot breakfast of tea, coffee, or cocoa, and an additional pound of bread previous to his going on duty; at one, he has his ration of meat, bread and wine, for dinner. In winter, salt meat is issued occasionally twice a week, but in summer never more than once. Daily bathing is practised in summer, and the soldiers are confined to barracks in the heat of the day, when they are encouraged to repose themselves. Every precaution is taken to keep the men from the influence of the sun and of the night air, and especially from excesses in drinking; but this is a task

beyond the power of man to accomplish. Every means are taken to render the troops clean and comfortable in their barracks.

Hospitals.—The two hospitals occupied by the troops are situate, one on the N. side of the esplanade close to the water's edge, and not more than 15 feet above its level; the other in the citadel on a plain between the two Phæacian rocks already mentioned, and 109 feet above the level of the sea. This last is by far the better situated, but is only sufficient for the sick of one regiment. The former is the largest of the two, and looked upon as the principal. In and near it are accommodations for the sick of two regiments, and also the apothecaries' stores and pharmacy for general purposes.*

The hospital on the esplanade, or the town hospital, as it is called, was applied to the same purposes by the Venetians, the Russians, and the French. In the time of these last, its administration was so notoriously bad, that St. Sauveur states, without reserve, 'that the health of the soldiers was an object of speculation, and often sacrificed to the interests of the directors of the hospital;' and that, if a soldier recovered, he owed it more to the native vigour of his constitution than to the aids he received from hospital treatment. His remarks upon the hospital are sufficiently striking: 'C'est là, que le soldat alloit au-devant de la mort plutôt que de la santé.'—Tom. i. p. 29.

By British humanity and British judgment many of its defects have been removed, and it is now far from being a bad hospital for Corfu, although assuredly it can never be brought into comparison with a good hospital in Great Britain. It is built in the form of a quadrangle, one side running from S.E. to N.W., and the other from E. to W. It is constructed on the side of a slope running rapidly down towards the sea; and in consequence of this declivity, one part (that running from S.E. to N.W.) consists of three stories, and the other of only two. It has been estimated as capable of accommodating 270 men,

* Dr. Hennen's excellent works on the medical topography of the Mediterranean supplies minute details on every thing connected with the health of the troops.

but Dr. Hennen thinks, it cannot well accommodate beyond 200.

It is divided into seven wards of various sizes, the smallest containing 10, the largest 36 beds.

The hospital in the citadel, which was formerly a granary, is situated on the plateau between two conical hills, and is a very excellent building for its purpose. It is capable of accommodating 100 patients extremely well. Besides this, there is in the citadel a detached house, in which the artillery sick are accommodated, capable of containing 20 beds.

Militia.—When the islands were under Brigadier General Campbell and Colonel Lowe's government, two corps were organized, the Greek light infantry and the Ionian light infantry; the former consisting of ten companies, the latter of four. The establishment of the former, who were engaged for general service, approached, in points of pay and other advantages, to that of the British. The latter, whose service was to be confined to the Ionian Islands alone, were organized on a more economical basis, more resembling that to which they were habituated under the French and Russian regimes, though their pay still exceeded either.

The soldiers of these corps were to be all Albanian Greeks.

The Cernide, or Island Militia, as organized by a law of the Septinsular Republic, was one of the best institutions for rendering the armed population of a country disposable to public use;* and a company of Coast Artillery had been organized in each island, as a branch of the Cernide.

The principle of the Cernide was as follows:—

The whole male population of the islands, from 16 to 60, capable of bearing arms, was registered and divided into two masses, Cernide di reserva and Cernide in attività; the latter enrolled to serve for a limited period.

The proportion of the Cernide in attività for the liberated islands, was as follows:—

* In case of a war it would be necessary to re-organize the Ionian militia, as they would form the chief defence of the islands.

Cephalonia, 2,500; Zante, 2,000; Santa Maura, 1,000; Cerigo, 750; Ithaca, 400.

Every ten men had a capo decima, every fifty a capo cinquantima, every five hundred was called a legion, and had an officer commanding, with the rank of captain, an adjutant, and secretary.

A superior officer, with the rank of lieutenant-colonel, commanded the whole of the Cernide in each island.

Exclusive of the Cernide and Coast Artillery, each island had a small force of Albanians, or natives, organized as gensd'armes and couriers, for the service of the tribunals, and for conveying into execution the orders of the government. The militia is not now organized.

REVENUE AND EXPENDITURE.—The official returns that I have obtained on this point are conflicting. The following return from 1821 to 1831 is from a Colonial Office manuscript; the remaining three years are derived from the Blue Book at the Colonial Office.

Ionian Islands' Gross Revenue and Expenditure in sterling Money.

Years.	Revenue.	EXPENDITURE.			Years.	Revenue.	EXPENDITURE.		
		Civil.	Military.	Total.			Civil.	Military.	Total.
1821	125,884	87,178	18,202	105,380	1829	139,405	115,311	32,502	147,813
1822	134,666	92,587	17,629	110,216	1830	146,922	117,468	29,287	146,755
1823	129.565	100,304	19,844	120,114	1831	131,052	108,386	28,290	136,676
1824	15[illegible]	92,217	33,588	125,805	1832	165,519	715,550	25,428	140,978
1827	12[illegible]	143,631	20,983	164,614	1833	144,073	129,145	27,077	156,222
1828	168,248	128,126	31,427	159,547	1834	190,791	128,695	27,821	156,517

Lord Nugent, in a recent address to the Senate, presents a somewhat different view. His Lordship, after adverting to the present prosperous state of the finances, says,—

'It is true that we are at the close of what may be called one of our productive years in respect of the sale of oil. But the revenue, I am enabled to show you, has reached an amount beyond that of any productive year which these

States have ever known. The account of the balance is also equally favourable. It is shortly this:—

'The amount of gross revenue in the years in which it has approached the nearest to that of the last year has been as follows:—

	£.		£.
In the year 1824 . .	178,689	1830 . .	182,487
1828 . .	187,118	1832 . .	189,939
1829 . .	171,646	1834 . .	200,846

'The amount of surplus revenue, beyond the expenditure for the service of the year, is also larger than that of any preceding year since the establishment of the Constitutional Government, excepting the year 1818, in which year, it may be observed, the great surplus was occasioned by an additional duty of five per cent. paid for that year only on currants, in consequence of the extraordinary rise in the price of that article of staple produce.

'The account of the years giving surplus revenue is as follows:

'In the year 1818, 38,334*l.* (Including 5,671*l.*, which was the amount of an extra duty laid, for that year only, on currants).

	£.		£.
1819 . . .	6,541	1824 . . .	32,254
1820 . . .	13,514	1828 . . .	8,700
1821 . . .	21,324	1830 . . .	167
1822 . . .	25,427	1832 . . .	12,832
1823 . . .	9,792	1834 . . .	34,373'

The revenue may be said to be entirely raised from custom duties on imports and exports; each island, after its local expences are defrayed, remits the surplus to the general treasury at Corfu, and the disbursement is solely under the control of the local legislature; a considerable proportion has hitherto been appropriated to the repair of the fortifications, and towards the military expenses, in virtue of the treaty of Paris, which provides for the 'military protection of the islands according to their revenues.'

Ionian Islands' Revenue for the alternate Years 1832 and 1834, and Expenditure for 1832 and 1834.

Revenue £. (Shillings Excluded.)			Expenditure £. (Shillings Excluded.)		
Items of Revenue.	Collected in 1832.	Collected in 1834.	Heads of Expenditure.	Expended in 1832.	Expended in 1834.
	£.	£.		£.	£.
Customs	30,937	36,692	Civil Disbursements :		
Transit Duty	501	690	Civil Establishments	58,350	58,388
Exports :—			Judicial Do.	18,448	20,229
Oil Duty	37,154	62,901	Ecclesiastical Do.	3,746	3,145
Currant Do.	37,000	33,678	Education	6,441	6,171
Imports :—			Public Quarters, including Military	5,650	5,602
Wines and Spirits Duty	4,575	2,992	Contingencies, including Charities and Hospitals	9,795	12,006
Tobacco Do.	4,331	2,059	Collecting the Revenues and Salt Works	2,757	3,500
Cattle Do.	2,195	2,174	Military Disbursements :—		
Grain Commutation for Tithes	14,334	..	Staff Pay and Commissariat Contingencies	10,075	8,131
Tonnage Duty	1,314	42	Half-pay Septinsular Corps, Pay of Commandant at Fano, Couriers, Officers, Passages, Barrack Stores, &c.	1,918	1,734
Port Duties	2,367	756	Fictilia	10,082	12,336
Surplus for Sanita and Post Office Tariff	..	5,260	Military Protection	5,000	..
Do. Police and Judicial Tariff	4,698	12,372	Fortifications and Public Works	26,713	19,907
Public Monopolies	1,481	1,493	Municipal Expenditure	..	5,362
Salines	5,115	4,263			
Lands and Houses	8,647	7,326			
Municipal Revenue	10,861	18,086			
Total Revenue	165,519	190,791	Total Expenditure	158,980	156,517

Revenue.—The increase of the customs in 1834 was owing to extended commerce; and in oil, to an unusually abundant crop in Corfu, and a failure of the produce in Italy. The decrease of the currant duty was owing to a modification of the tax to a parity with that on oil. The decrease on grain was owing to an abolition of the duties by Act. ii. Parl. iv. The other items were owing to modifications and incorporations with other duties, &c.

Expenditure.—6,805*l.* transferred from municipal expenditure to public works; 2,254*l.*, purchase of steam vessel, and repairs; 5000*l.* for military protection, formerly paid out of grant for fortifications; 1,543*l.*, owing to the discontinuance

of gratuities to public functionaries; the other items of difference are in minutiæ.

The estimated expense of putting the fortifications in repair in 1824, was 182,050*l.*, thus distributed:—

Vido (new works constructing), 53,000*l.*; Salvador Heights (not yet commenced) 25,000*l.*; existing defences repaired, 52,050*l.*; casemated barracks, 30,000*l.*; bomb-proof hospital citadel (constructing), 12,000*l.*; expense of magazine, 5000*l.*; contingencies, 5000*l.*; total, 182,050*l.*: of which amount there has already been expended 162,424*l.*, under the controul of the Ordnance Department. The plan ultimately sanctioned was 227,000*l.*, and the Ionian Government have consented to extend the grant. The island expense for military works, barracks, quarters, &c. was, in 1834, 25,535*l.*, of which 21,800*l.* was the balance of a grant for fortifications, paid to the Ordnance Department. Let it be remembered that this expense is *borne solely by the Ionians*, and that the artificers employed are British soldiers, who receive sixpence, ninepence, or twelvepence per day extra, beyond their usual pay, for the work they perform.

It has been proposed by the Ionian Parliament to accept a sum of 35,000*l.* a-year as a permanent commutation, in lieu of the military payments which the islands are required to make, and which has never yet been fixed. This sum would of course include the 20,000*l.* a-year now paid for fortifications; the staff pay of 8000*l.*; allowances to the major-general, 1,365*l.*; quarters for troops, 5000*l.*; a company of sappers and miners, 2,800*l.*; and a contribution to the military chest of 5000*l.* The canteen rents, and the disbursements thereof, was, for the year ending 31st January, 1835, as follows:—Balance of former year, 1,163*l.*; Corfu, 4,194*l.*; Cephalonia, 275*l.*; Zante, 511*l.*; Santa Maura, 209*l.*; Ithaca, 37*l.*; Cerigo, 60*l.*; Paxo, 5*l.*: total, 6456*l.* Of this sum 5,438*l.* was paid into the treasury in part repayment of the loan of 10,000*l.* formerly advanced from the grant for fortifications; and the remainder was distributed as wine allowances to the army, in aid of the expense of the regimental messes, at 25*l.* per company. The following shews the—

Amount paid by Great Britain for the Military Expenditure of the Ionian Islands for the year 1832. (House of Commons Report of Military Expenditure, August, 1834.)

Ordinaries of the Army.		Ordnance Charges.							Commissariat and Army Extras.			Transport of Troops and Stores.	Provisions and Stores sent from England.	Total Charges incurred.*	Deductions for Stoppages from Ordinance and Officers' Servants, Rent of Military Lands, Buildings, Bill Paying, &c.	Actual Cost to Great Britain.
Regimental Pay, Clothing, Contingencies, and Hospital Charges, exclusive of stoppages for Provisions.	Pay of General and Medical Staff, Garrison Officers, and Chaplains.	Pay and Allowances of Artillery and Engineers.	Pay and Allowances of Civil Departments.	Contingent Expenses of Civil and Military Branches.	Ordinary Stores.	Military Works.	Pay and Allowances of Barrack Department.	Barrack Stores.	Commissariat Pay and Allowances.	Provisions, Forage, Fuel, Stores, and Freight of Specie, &c.	Contingencies.					
£.	£.	£.	£.	£.	£.	£.	£.	£.	£.	£.	£.	£.	£.	£.	£.	£.
76311	4373	12412	1287	906	378	13093	119	108	1588	21693	567	3433	3951	140223	37523	102899

* Shillings and pence, as given in the Return, are omitted.

The expenditure incurred by Great Britain for military protection for 1834 (Colonial Office return) was:—

Provisions, forage, fuel, and light, 18,631*l.*; ordinaries, 53,086*l.*; ordnance, 7,148*l.*; impressment (navy), 1,627*l.*; commissariat contract and pay, 1,325*l.*; army contracts, 344*l.*; miscellaneous, 1,346*l.*;—total, 83,511*l.* Deduct stoppages for rations, staff and ordnance, 2,390*l.*; repayments, 139*l.*; imposts, 1,627*l.*;—total, 4,158*l.* Net charge, 79,353*l.*

The summary of payments of army extraordinaries for the year ending 31st March, 1834, is as follows:—

	Corfu.	Zante and Prigo.	Cephalonia and Ithaca.	Santa Maura.	Total (excluding shillings).
	£.	£.	£.	£.	£.
Provisions, Forage, Fuel and Light	11,578	2,665	2,916	323	17,494
Straw, Implements, &c.	528	210	317	28	1,083
Transport and Travelling Expenditure	165	..	25	14	206
Commissariat Pay of Clerks, &c.	821	156	188	49	1,215
Miscellaneous and Contingencies	69	..	..	..	69
Totals (excluding shillings)	13,162	3,032	3,447	426	20,069

During the same year, the pay, &c. of the troops was 50,066*l.*; the ordnance department, 6,751*l.*; naval do. 1,159*l.*;

half-pay, commissariat, &c. 894*l.*; the total being about 79,000*l.*

The Buildings, Roads, Canals, &c. not of a Military Nature undertaken or in progress during the past year, were—

Nature of Work.	Whether Constructing or under Repair.	Estimated Expense.	When Commenced.	Finished or Unfinished.	If Finished, Actual Expenditure.	If Unfinished, Expenditure to present Date.
		£.			£.	£.
Corfu :—						
Public Buildings on Esplanade	Constructing	3,627	1833	Unfinished	..	1,657
Do. School	Repairing	250	Do.	Finished	227	..
Municipal and Ecclesiastical Buildings	Do.	3,329	1834	Unfinished	..	2,077
Roads	Do.	7,738	August 1833	..	4384	..
Cephalonia :—						
Prisons	Constructing	8,848	1826	Unfinished	..	7,702
School and Monta de Picta	Do.	2,430	1830	..	..	1,402
Filling up Cutavo Marsh .	..	2,164	Do.	..	..	2,164
Roads	Repairing	..	1834	..	..	1,403
Zante :—						
Mole and Aqueduct . .	Constructing	..	1826	Unfinished	..	12,261
Prisons	Do.	5,453	1830	..	..	5,167
Roads	Repairing	..	1834	..	..	1,692
Santa Maura :—						
Mole and Canal . . .	Constructing	..	1818	Unfinished	..	27,091
Roads	Repairing	..	1834	..	..	130
Ithaca :—						
Roads	Do.	..	1834	..	..	177
Cerigo :—						
Roads	Do.	..	1834	..	..	16
Paxo :—						
Harbour Entry . . .	Improving	128	1832	Finished	128	..
Roads	Constructing	..	1834	Unfinished.	..	333

CHAPTER IV.

CEPHALONIA.

LOCALITY — HISTORY — ANTIQUITIES — PHYSICAL ASPECT—GEOLOGY AND SOIL—CLIMATE AND DISEASES—VEGETABLE AND ANIMAL KINGDOMS—POPULATION—STAPLE PRODUCTS—COMMERCE, &c. &c.

CEPHALONIA, although second in rank to Corfu, is the largest of the islands composing the septinsular union. It is situate in the parallel of 38.27. N. lat. and the meridian of 20.32. E. of Greenwich, having Santa Maura about six miles to the northward, Zante eight miles to the southward, and the west coast of the Morea 24 miles distant. The area is 348 square miles, the extreme length 32, extreme breadth 18, and the circumference following the coast 150 miles.

Cephalonia, like Corfu, has had many names; some assert its original name to have been *Teleboa,* but Strabo denies it, and states it to have been Cheffali (from, I presume, κεφαλη, a head) owing to the island being first in size, and greater in political importance than the other islands in the Ionian Sea. Homer, in describing the various armies of the Greeks assembled at the siege of Troy, represents Ulysses as commanding the *Cephalonites,* giving the title of *Samos* to the island, which was also known by the name of Tetrapolis, from having four towns, viz. Palis, Same, Cranii and Pronesos, being the names of the four sons of Cephalus. Pliny calls the island *Melæna* as well as *Same,* and Virgil denominates it *Dulichium.* The early history of the island, as may be expected is involved in fable or allegory; such, however, as it is, I subjoin, according to the statements of Messrs. Sauveur, Kendrick, Goodison, &c. in order to promote inquiry.

The Curetes, who occupied the island of Crete, spread themselves into Ætolia, and then made themselves masters of

Acarnania. They afterwards passed into Ionia, and conquered the country of the Leleges, who were likewise denominated in history Teleboans. The Cretans soon added to theirs the islands in the Ionian Sea, and planted a colony in that of Cephalonia, to which they gave the name of Teleboa. Strabo, however, in his account asserts that the Teleboans fled from their conquerors, and sought an asylum in this island, after being chased by Achilles from the continent—placing this epoch prior to the siege of Troy. Cephalonia was therefore called Teleboa; and her fierce warriors, under the conduct of Ulysses, partook with the Myrmidons the honour of revenging Menelaus.

Cephalus, an Athenian prince, being obliged to fly his country for the murder of Procris, his wife, took refuge in Bæotia; with Creon, king of Thebes. At this time, the Teleboans had excited the wrath of the Thebans, by assassinating the brothers of Alcmena, the wife of Amphitryon, their general. The army, strengthened by the assistance of the Locrians and Phoceans, who lent their powerful succour for the occasion, prepared to punish the audacity of the islsnders. Cephalus offered his services, and was admitted to share the dangers of the expedition. The Teleboans were defeated in battle; and, after losing their king, submitted to the yoke of the conqueror. Amphitryon returned triumphant to Thebes, where he found Alcmena pregnant by Jupiter. She gave birth to Hercules. Cephalus remained in the isle of Teleboa, over which he reigned in peaceable possession. He changed its name and gave it his own; and from thence it was called Cephalonia. His successors and descendants reigned for six generations, when they abandoned the kingdom, and retired into Attica, determined in this resolution by the oracle of Delphi, which they had consulted; thus having renounced the throne of Cephalonia, the inhabitants resolved to adopt the republican form of government. The four principal cities had already assumed this measure, independent of each other, but were obliged now to unite for the common cause. History says that the island was

formed into one republic from the first, of which Palis was the capital, and the supreme authority divided between the senate and the people.

The power of the islanders, their progress in navigation, and the advantages of their ports, rendered, them, even long before the siege of Troy, valuable allies, or formidable enemies to the various neighbouring people. The Argonauts, under Jason, their leader, touched at the island of Cephalonia. It was at the port of Cranii, at the extreme end of the harbour, that he anchored. On landing he found a people who were inured to the hardships of a seafaring life, and who were fully instructed in maritime affairs. Cranii was frequented continually by vessels from Argos, whence arose the name of Argostoli; from the Greek, signifying the 'fleet of Argos.' But other historians, seeking further back, say it derived the name from the vessel of the Argonauts, which was called Argo.

In the most remote times the Cephalonites took part in all the various revolutions of Greece, and their courage and bravery would at once decide a victory in favour of the people whose cause they embraced. Before the Trojan war, Thucydides speaks of the share which the Cephalonites took in the war occasioned by the inhabitants of Epidamnus, between the Corinthians and Corcyreans, and bestows considerable praise on the courage they showed in battle. It appears that Palis furnished on this occasion four ships, to befriend the Corinthians who were allies. It is rather singular that Thucydides, in speaking of this succour, should only mention the people of Palis; his silence on the other inhabitants conveys the idea that the isle was divided at that time into many different republics. The number of men who embarked on this occasion, amounted to 120, of whom 50 were employed to manage the ship, and the rest were either spearmen or archers. The Cephalonites afterwards abandoned the cause of the Corinthians, on the Athenians declaring war against the latter; for which reason the Corinthians sent 40 vessels to punish their treachery.

This fleet arrived in the port Cranii, and the troops dis-

embarked: but being a strongly fortified place, it resisted every attempt made against it; and, in the end, the inhabitants one night contrived to surprise the Corinthians, defeating them with great slaughter. They continued faithful to the Athenians, supplying them with ships and men, whenever required, throughout all the wars the latter sustained.

The ruins and ancient monuments of all kinds, which have been found in the isle, leave no doubt of the riches and progress of the people in the fine arts. They have immortalized themselves likewise in foreign countries, by their skill and talent at athletic games. The famous amphitheatre at Elis, where the athletes assembled from all parts of Greece to dispute for the prize awarded at the Olympian games to the winners, was likewise the work of the people of Palis, which declares the nobleness and grandeur of the works they erected. The statue which they raised in the temple of Jupiter Olympus, to Themoptotes, the son of Lamptis, who won the prize at these games, proves the love which the islanders had for glory, and their esteem for merit.

Although the effacing hand of time has obliterated most of the traces of bygone ages, yet some still exist to attest the greatness of a people who passed so rapidly from a comparatively high state of civilization into sloth and barbarism.

At about three miles distance from Argostoli to the S. E., the walls of the ancient city of Cranii can easily be traced, occupying the top of a very rough and inaccessible ridge, which projects upon the E. angle of the lake or gulph at its southern extremity. A very considerable portion of the butt of the walls still remains, sufficient to trace their circumference throughout. Some of these consist of enormous masses of stone, hewn and laid together much after the same fashion with those at Santa Maura and Ithaca.

All the different descriptions of cyclopic building are found here, the rougher and more massy specimens occupying the higher parts. The wall which faces the S. may be traced for about 1,508 paces, and another looking N. E. extends for about 800. In the latter are very large blocks of stone; at one

part they are regularly squared, where they probably formed the casement of a door. Where both walls join, there is a part constructed of masses also nearly square, a very large stone resting on two others, which it has nearly forced from under it; it is of the following dimensions:—length, eight feet ten inches: depth, five feet two inches; height, six feet seven inches. A second, nearly quadrangular, is eight feet in width, three feet ten inches high, and four inches and a half in thickness. A third enormous block, is thirteen feet five inches in length, three feet three inches in height, and about the same in its greatest depth, which is, however, irregular. Besides these powerful artificial defences, the situation of the place was at once difficult and dangerous for the assault of an enemy, particularly the ascent to the S. wall, which runs along the edge of a precipice its whole length.*

Cranii is mentioned in history as the capital of one of the four kingdoms, or districts, into which the island was divided. Philip of Macedon, and the Roman Consul Flaminius, were repulsed from Cranii; and according to Livy (book 38, c. 29), the Samians held out against the Romans under Marcus Fulvius, for four months:—'Quatuor menses obsidionem Same sustinuit, quum ex paucis quotidie aliqui eorum caderent, aut vulnerarentur, et, qui superarent, fessi et corporibus et animis essent. Romani nocte per arcem, quam Cyatidem vocant (nam urbs, in mare devexa, in occidentem vergit) muro superato, in forum supervenerunt. Samæi, postquam captam urbis partem ab hostibus senserunt, cum conjugibus ac liberis in majorem refugerunt arcem, inde postero die dediti, direpta urbe, sub corona omnes venierunt.'

Cephalonia possessed its liberty long after the downfall of Athens, Corinth, Sparta, and the other celebrated republics of Greece; but though it repulsed Titus Quintius Flaminius, the Roman Consul, and long held out against the legions sent to reduce it, Fulvius finally stormed Same, then containing 1,800 houses, and put the people to the sword. From thence Cephalonia continued as a province of the Roman empire

* Kendrick.

until A. D. 364, when it passed under the yoke of the emperors of the east, who continued masters thereof until 982, when the Lombards, a people of Pannonia, under the command of John Leone, conquered and took possession of the island.

In 1125, A. D., Cephalonia again became subject to the emperors of the east, when they began to recover from the harassing irruptions of the Ottomans, under Mahomet. The island is stated to have been given to Baudoin, for his services against the Saracens, when they besieged Constantinople. On the death of Baudoin, it was ruled by Galus, Prince of Tarento, who had also other islands in the Ionian sea, given him by the eastern emperor, in return for the money he had lent to carry on the Saracenic war. Cephalonia, on the downfal of the Eastern Empire, followed the fate of Corfu, and became a dependency of the Venetian republic, who retained possession until Napoleon occupied Venice; since which period the island, as stated in the preceding chapter, has successively passed under the government, or protection of the Russians, French and English.

PHYSICAL ASPECT.—Cephalonia is extremely rugged and mountainous. The general direction of the mountains is from S. to N.; at the southern extremity of the range, or opposite the coast of Zante, is the highest mountain in the Ionian islands, the mountain Ænos of antiquity, the modern Black mountain, or Montagna Negra, 3,625 feet above the level of the sea. Mr. Muir, who has attentively examined the island, says that—'the general aspect of the mountains is arid and barren, some of them being without a trace of vegetation, and presenting, from the bottom to the top, nothing but a rugged variety of brown and grey rock, with perhaps here and there a solitary olive tree growing from a fissure betwixt them. What little soil they may have formerly been covered with, has either been washed down by the rains, or if found in the interstices and fissures, been carried down to cover the crusts of rock appearing through the scanty soil in the vallies below. On many of the mountains are found large blocks of various dimensions of a hard calcareous stone, sometimes isolated,

and sometimes in groups, and often upon the tops of the highest hills in great abundance. They are in general more rounded than angular, by attrition from water, which must have been sea-water, from the number of marine fossil shells found deposited in the rocks at various elevations all over the island. It is to be remarked also, that these blocks appeared much more compact than the rock of the mountain itself, which is also calcareous, and in all probability they are the debris of former mountains, perhaps of the continent of Greece itself, lodged there by currents before the island appeared above the level of the sea; for that the whole of the island has been under water, indeed that it is a deposit from the sea itself, admits, in Mr. Muir's opinion, of very little doubt.

The top of Montagna Negra is usually covered with snow about the beginning or middle of December, which seldom disappears from its summit before the beginning of May. The inhabitants say that diseases were not so frequent before the destruction of the wood on the Black Mountain, which was formerly covered nearly to its summit, on the N. side with forest trees, principally fir and cypress. About 27 years ago the forest was completely destroyed by being set fire to by some evil disposed persons of one of the factions. Ever since then, say the inhabitants, the whole island, but especially the neighbouring valleys, have been subject to greater atmospherical vicissitudes in consequence of winds and storms, &c., having room to collect and rush down on the plains below with unimpeded velocity and fury. At present, the N. side of this mountain presents a very extraordinary sight; the whole sloping side, for miles, is thickly studded with the bleached trunks of trees entirely denuded of their bark, and without a leaf, many of them from 30 to 40 feet high, presenting themselves, by their various forkings and withered branches, under the most grotesque and even hideous forms; a feature which is often observable along the mountain ridges of New Holland, after a dry summer, when forest conflagrations are general.

The harbour of Cephalonia runs inland for eight miles, rather difficult of ingress and egress, owing to its serpentine form, but offering a spacious and convenient shipping port. The entrance to the haven is extremely picturesque; on either side groves and plantations, relieved in the back ground by majestic mountains, meet the eye in varied succession. To the left, on the western side of the harbour, three miles from its entrance, stands the town of Lixuri (olim Palis); in front of this town the harbour opens into a branch running to the S. E. for three miles; and on the peninsula formed by this branch, and close to the sea, is Argostoli, the capital of the island, built upon a slip of level ground upon the western shore of the harbour, at the foot of a narrow promontory or tongue of land above-mentioned, and which is about three miles and a half long, not exceeding two miles in length at its broadest part, and gradually becoming narrower till it terminates in that point which forms the N. W. extremity of the harbour. The town lies about the centre of this ridge. It consists of two main streets which run N. and S., and a number of cross streets and lanes. The principal street, or that next the water, is about one mile and a quarter long, and 20 feet wide; the other not nearly so long. The town is open and unwalled, rapidly increasing in size, and about three miles in circumference. The streets are all very narrow, but tolerably well paved, and with several common sewers. The houses are generally two stories high, fronting the N. E. They are built of stone, cemented with lime and terra rosa, and covered with tiles. The general average size of the rooms is about 14 feet superficial square, and they are very low. The ceilings are unplastered, the floors are almost universally of wood; the windows glazed, but in a loose manner, and without putty.

The soil on which the majority of houses are built is gravelly, but some are built on 'made ground' recovered from the sea; these houses are principally to be met with about the wharfs and moles at the southern end of the town, which is decidedly more unhealthy than the northern. The hills

which rise behind the town are thickly planted with the currant and the vine to the distance of about 120 or 130 feet up their sides, and interspersed with olive trees, but above that level they are bleak and precipitous.*

The town of Lixuri is not a station for the troops; it is nearly of the same general characters as Argostoli; but cleanliness is much less attended to. It is situated on the shore of that branch of the harbour which runs northward, on an argillaceous schistous soil. The number of inhabitants of Argostoli, exclusive of the troops, was, a few years ago, somewhat more than 3,500. That of Lixuri somewhat more than 4,800.

Catacombs have been found by the Venetians, French and British, to the S. W. of Argostoli, and the remains of ancient warriors completely clad in their war dresses discovered, the bones crumbling into dust on the slightest pressure. The Venetians opened eight catacombs in 1647, and sent the antiquities contained in them to Venice; the further discoveries made in 1810 produced little to interest the antiquarian.

At Argostoli, as at Lixuri, there are no regular barracks, and whenever troops are detached there, they are accommodated in private houses taken up for the purpose. There is a third post at which troops are occasionally quartered, viz., the convent of St. Theodora, situated about a mile from Argostoli, on a healthy spot near the entrance of the gulf or harbour.

At between five and six miles distance from Argostoli lies the citadel or castle of St. George, situate on the summit of a hill of considerable height, which constitutes the southern termination of a range that extends along and forms the eastern side of the harbour of Argostoli. The wall of this castle encloses about three acres of land. It is situated five miles S. S. E. from the city, and four from the lagoon in which the harbour terminates. The lofty Mount Ænos, which rises on the S. S. E. of the castle, distant about six miles, for six months in the year is covered with snow. There are no

* Hennen.

springs in the castle, but there is always a plentiful supply of rain water, which is preserved in tanks for the use of the British troops. From the castle you descend by a gentle declivity to a tolerably well built village, which occupies the eastern extremity of the hill. It appears to have contained a considerable number of inhabitants at one time, but at present many of the houses are in ruins. On the S. S. E. side of this village stands the hospital, which was once a convent.*.

Cephalonia, although at present divided into Cantons, viz. Erizzo, Tinea, Samos, Anoi, Pilaro, Kaloi, Livadi, Potamiana, Ikongia, Skala, and Pirie, was formerly divided into four regions each, named after an ancient city (viz. Samos, Palæa, Pronos, and Cranii), and hence called Tetrapolis. These four regions are still distinguishable in the natural configuration of the island, owing to the double aspect of the mountainous formation; one of the faces inclining E. and the other W. The variety of mountain scenery presents many sweet and romantic views to the Cephalonian tourist, among which the valley and bay of Samos is of unsurpassed beauty.

Geology and Soil.—Cephalonia consists of limestone of secondary formation; the ranges which project from the body of the island were originally a sand deposit, and are incrusted at top with limestone. The strata of sand-stone begin to appear one-third from the top, and abounds in shells and marine fossils; and so rapid is the formation of carbonate of lime, that quarries where sand-stone was hewn not many years since, are now in many places coated with limestone. Crystals of sulphate of lime of a yellowish tint, and very brittle, are occasionally found; and stalactical of a greenish white, and remarkable for their hardness, are abundantly obtained in caves near the coast. A mineral spring of a sulphurous impregnation, issues from a rock close to the sea, and is used externally and internally by the natives as a remedy for *psora*. The soil is generally of a light calcareous nature, thinly sprinkled on the rocky surface; but in some of the deeper vallies and ravines there are beds

* Assistant-Surgeon M'Arthur.

of rich alluvial soil, mixed with a fine red mould termed '*terra rosa*,' which the natives occasionally employ as a cement for covering the roofs and floors of houses, or, mixed with a little lime, as a substitute for mortar. In the Lixuri district there is a heavy grey argillaceous soil, approaching somewhat to the nature of schistus, and much used in making tiles, bricks, and coarse earthenware.

CLIMATE AND DISEASES.—The observations under Corfu, refer generally to the other islands; the thermometer maximum 95°, minimum 44°, Fahrenheit. Sharp frost in January; heavy rains in February and March, succeeded by dry weather; May, middle, heavy rain; June, sultry with showers; July, August, and September, clear, with occasional rain; October fine; and much rain from November 12th to December 20th; remainder fine, with snow on the mountains, which continues visible until April or May. As a whole, the climate may be said to be more variable than any other island of the Septinsular Union, owing, probably, to its elevation. Earthquakes frequently happen, but rarely do much injury, as they seldom last more than three or four seconds; they are most frequent in summer, when the sirocco wind blows, and are generally preceded by, and accompanied with, a rustling noise in the air. The most severe earthquakes occurred in 1736, 1743, and 1752; these were destructive in the north parts of the island. In 1818, 1819, 1820, and 1821, shocks were frequent and severe. The principal diseases are remittent and intermittent fevers, the former coming in June and continuing to September, when they are succeeded by intermittents, which last until January. A fifth of the population suffer annually from these diseases, but the mortality is reckoned at no higher than $1\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. Elephantiasis exists at Paractata village fronting the mountains, which is covered in winter with snow. Catarrh and pneumonia are very prevalent, scarlatina frequent in summer, and psora exists all over the island. The following return shews the—

Average Strength of the Garrison of Cephalonia, from 21st July, 1815, to 20th December, 1821; and of the daily Number of Sick.

	21st July to 20th Dec. 1815.	1816.	1817.	1818.	1819.	1820.	1821.
Strength of the Garrison . .	334	396	270	211	266	250	535
Average daily Number of Sick .	13	34	26	12	13	13	41

VEGETABLE KINGDOM.—M. Sauveur speaks of several remarkable plants in Cephalonia—one dyes the teeth of goats of a bright golden yellow, and imparts a rich flavour to their milk; and a second turns gold to a whitish colour, as if touched with mercury.

The following is a catalogue of the plants of Cephalonia:—

Class 1.—Order 1. Salicornia herbacea.

Class 2.—Order 1. Jasminum officinale; do. grandiflorum; do. odoratissimum; olea europæa; veronica officinalis; do. beccabunga; verbena officinalis; rosmarinus officinalis (the spirituous distilled water is constantly and successfully used in recent chancres, externally applied); salvia officinalis (greatly in use among the natives in asthma).

Class 3.—Order 1. Iris germanica; do. biflora. Order 2. Avena sativa; arundo donax; lolium temulentum; secale cereale; hordeum vulgare; triticum hybernum; do. repens.

Class 4.—Order 1. Rubia tinctorum; plantago major. Order 2. Cuscuta epithymum.

Class 5.—Order 1. Anchusa officinalis; cynoglossum officinale; symphytum officinale; borago officinalis; cyclamen europæum (the juice is occasionally rubbed to the abdomen as a purgative); plumbago europæa (a poultice of the bruised leaves is a frequent application to schirrous tumours; it vesicates and produces an abundant discharge); convolvulus sepium (the expressed juice, in the form of an extract, is used as a substitute for scammony in doses of from 20 to 30 grains); hyoscyamus niger; nicotiana tabacum (the leaf is applied to the pubis in cases of suppression of urine); atropa mandragora; physalis alkekengi; solanum tuberosum; do.

lycopersicum; do. nigrum; do. melongena; capsium annuum; rhamnus catharticus; do. ziziphus; hedera helix; nitis vinifera; nerium oleander (the powdered leaves made into an ointment are used in itch). Order 2. Asclepias vincetoxicum; beta vulgaris; do. cicla; ulmus campestris (a decoction of the bark is in use in cutaneous diseases); caucalis grandiflora; daucus carota; conium maculatum; peucedanum officinale; crithmum maritimum; coriandrum sativum; scandix cerefolium; smyrnium olusatrum; anethum graveolens; do. fœniculum; pimpinella anisum; apium petroselinum; do. graveolens. Order 3. Sambucus nigra; tamarix gallica. Order 5. Linum usitatissimum.

Class, 6.—Order 1. Allium sativum; do. porrum; do. cepa; scilla maritima; asphodelus (the juice is applied externally in cutaneous diseases); asparagus sylvestris; agave americana. Order 3. Rumex patientia; colchicum autumnale (used as a diuretic, but not much esteemed).

Class 7.—Order 1. Tropæolum majus.

Class 8.—Order 3. Polygonum bistorta.

Class 9.—Order 1. Laurus nobilis.

Class 10.—Order 1. Senna italica; ruta graveolens; tribulus terrestris (the decoction is used in calculous complaints). Order 2. Saponaria officinalis; dianthus caryophyllus. Order 10. Phylotacca (the expressed juice, brought to the consistence of an extract, is looked upon as a specific in cancer. The whole of the diseased parts are covered with it for twenty-four hours. Excessive pain and inflammation are produced, and several cures are reported to have been effected in the course of six or eight weeks).

Class 11.—Order 1. Asarum europæum; portulaca sylvestris. Order 2. Agrimonia eupatoria; cataputia minor; (the leaves dried and powdered, after having been kept for a whole year, are used as a substitute for jalap; the juice formed into an extract, and powdered, is used as a substitute for scammony). Order 4. Sempervivum tectorum; (the leaves slightly bruised and soaked in vinegar are in constant use for corns).

Class 12.—Order 1. Cactus opuntia; myrtus communis; *punica granatum*; amygdalus dulcis; do. amara; do. persica; Cerasus sylvestris; prunus domestica. Order 4. Pyrus communis; do. malus; do. cydonia. Order 5. Rosa; rubus *cæsius*.

Class 13.—Order 1. Capparis spinosa; papaver hortense; do. rhæas. Order 2. Pæonia officinalis. Order 3. Delphinium consolidia; do. staphisagria. Order 7. Pulsatilla nigricans; flammula jovis; ranunculus arvensis; helleborus niger.

Class 14.—Order 1. Teucrium chamæpitys; do. scordium; hyssopus officinalis; lavandula spica; mentha sativa; do. pulegium; betonica officinalis; marrubium vulgare; origanum vulgare; thymus vulgaris; melissa officinalis; (the expressed juice is used for specks on the cornea). Ocimum basilicum. Order 2. Euphrasia officinalis; antirrhinum linaria; scrophularia nodosa; sesamum orientale; vitex agnus castus.

Class 15.—Order 1. Draba alpina; cochlearia officinalis. Order 2. Raphanus rusticanus; cardamine pratensis; do. hirsuta; sisymbrium nasturtium; erysimum officinale; brassica capitata alba; do. cauliflora; do. radice napiformi; do. eruca; sinapis nigra; raphanus sativus.

Class 16.—Order 2. Geranium robertianum. Order 3. Althæa officinalis; malva arborea; do. vulgaris; gossypium herbaceum.

Class 17.—Order 1. Fumaria officinalis; (the decoction is used as a bitter, and as a diet drink in cutaneous diseases.) Order 3. Spartium junceum; do. scoparium; ononis spinosa; phaseolus; lathyrus sativus; vicia faba; cicer arietinum; colutea arborescens, (the dried leaves are used as a substitute for senna, and are reported to be equally effectual); trifolium; do. ornithopodioides.

Class 18.—Order 2. Citrus medica; aurantium. Order 3. Hypericum perforatum; (a decoction of the leaves in wine is used in phthisis.)

Class 19.—Order 1. Tragopogon pratense; scorzonera humilis; do. orientale; sonchus oleraceus; lactuca sativa; leontodon taraxacum; cichorium intybus; arctium lappa; cynara scolymus; carlina acaulis; atractylis gummifera; carthamus tinctorius; santolina; tanacetum vulgare; do. balsamita; do. incanum. Order 2. Tussilago farfara; senecio vulgaris; chrysanthemum leucanthemum; matricaria parthenium; chamæmelum vulgare; do. romanum.

Class 20.—Order 1. Orchis; Order 5. Aristolochia longa; do. rotunda. Order 7. Arum maculatum.

Class 21.—Order 4. Betula alba: urtica urens; morus

alba; do. nigra; Order 5. Amaranthus albus; do. tricolor; do. oleraceus. Order 8. Quercus ilex; do. robur; do. cerris; juglans regia. Order 9. Pinus pinea; do. abies; cupressus sempervirens; ricinus communis, (this plant grows abundantly, and especially near Livadi). Order 10. Momordica elaterium, (the extract is used as with us. The leaves are externally applied to inflammatory tumours); cucurbita pepo; do. citrullus; cucumis melo; do. dudaim; do. sativus; bryonia alba.

Class 22.—Order 3. Pistacia vera; spinacia oleracea. Order 5. Tamus communis; smilax sarsaparilla aspera. Order 7. Mercurialis annua.

Class 23.—Order 1. Parietaria officinalis; atriplex hortensis. Order 3. Ficus carica.

Class 24.—Order 1. Polypodium vulgare; filex mas; Order 3. Lichen pulmonarius, (is employed as a substitute for Lichen islandicus).

The vine, olive, and flax are principally cultivated; and not more than four months' consumption of corn is grown for the island.

Dr. Davy, in some remarks with which he has favoured me, observes:—

The capabilities of the Ionian Islands are *very great*, and their advantages, in relation to soil, climate, and situation, where they what they might be, would surpass most other regions of the globe. Now, with the exception of the currant islands, if those may be excepted, their population is scanty, and the people generally are poor, and a large proportion of them wretched and ignorant. The olive plantations, which during the best times of the Venetians constituted the wealth of Corfu, are now almost its curse. The island is almost overrun with them; and requiring but little cultivation, they have given rise to habits of idleness, which have been the ruin of the people, especially associated with habits of carelessness, partly perhaps owing to the uncertainty of the crop of olives, which of all crops is the most precarious,—depending on circumstances of weather of a very delicate nature,—and on a succession of circumstances baffling all calculcation.

Animal Kingdom.—This requires no detailed notice; cattle are imported from the Morea, but there are considerable herds of goats and sheep, whose milk is made into cheese. Aquatic birds and migratory game abound, and fish is plentiful. It is said that on the burning of the black forest, the bones of enormous snakes were found.

Population.—There are no early records of the number of inhabitants; the following is a

GENERAL STATISTICAL TABLE OF THE ISLAND OF CEPHALONIA, ON ITS OCCUPATION BY THE BRITISH.*

Divisions.	Districts called Pertinenze.	Cities, or Chief Towns.	Number of Villages.	Population.	Ports.	Produce.	General Observations.
Argostoli.	Livato	Argostoli.....	26	9,569	Argostoli.	Corn for Five Months in the Year. Cattle in insignificant numbers, except of Sheep and Goats, of which, sufficient for consumption of the Villages. Wine, Oil, Honey and Cotton abundant; Salt and Wood also, with care and labour.	Argostoli to the S. W., and Samo to the N. E. of the Island, are the principal Ports, both sufficiently capacious for the largest fleet, and perfectly land-locked. Port Guiscardo and Porto Terra are on a smaller scale, but perfectly secure. The Port of Asso has not been surveyed, but is supposed to have too great depth of water. It is formed by a peninsula, on which the ground work of a very considerable fortress is still extant, and is the only part of the Island that has defences towards the sea.
	Pilaro	Macriotico.....	15	3,503	Samo.		Argostoli and Lixuri are the only towns of consequence, each containing about 4,000 inhabitants. The former is situated on an Isthmus, which forms the Port, and is capable of being fortified in such a manner as to afford perfect security to the town, and protection to the vessels in its harbour.
	Samo	Blacata	18	2,152			The Fortress of S. Giorgio, five miles in the interior, is the only post that has any connection with the defence of this part of the coast.
	Pirgi.....	Degaleto.....	6	1,095			The enrolled Militia of the Island, called Cernecide, is 4,500 men, of whom 2,500 are reputed to be in activity, but they have rarely, if ever, been assembled. The Inhabitants have their own Arms, and the Cernecide is nearly a general nomination of those capable of bearing Arms. A more regular organization might render the greater part of this Force efficient.
	Racli.....	Zannata	11	1,127			The Productions of the Island are specified in their proper column; but a large Pine and Fir Wood, on a mountain at the E. extremity of the Island, offers resources, the value of which has not yet been duly ascertained. It is presumed to lie sufficiently contiguous to the sea, to admit of a very considerable exportation for naval and commercial purposes.
	Cornus....	Scala	4	1,516			The principal Exports are Currants, Wine, Oil and Cotton. The Wine of good quality, and capable of bearing the sea. The Muscat Wine excellent, and has always formed a considerable object of Foreign Commerce.
	Leo	Maurata	12	897			The Revenues which arise almost wholly from the Duties on Exports and Imports, amount to about 60,000 Dollars per Year, of which about one-third of which none now exist in any shape, though they are in various branches, wanting.
	Cosimia ..	Olocata	7	1,218			The Number of Vessels, of two and three masts, belonging to Cephalonia, are about 120, of which at least one half are in a decayed state, or away. Of smaller Vessels there is about 80. The Number of Seamen is estimated at 2,600, not in actual employ, but the Island is capable of furnishing that number.
	Omola	Valsamata	5	1,408			The Island has drawn its supplies of Corn indiscriminately from the Morea, Albania, the Adriatic and Black Sea; that brought from the latter being the cheapest and the best quality. Its supplies of Cattle has been drawn from the Morea and Albania. The Island itself is capable of a much higher degree of cultivation, and producing several articles, such as Rice, Hemp, Silk, of which it now has none: as also of producing in much larger quantities, Corn, Cotton, and Oil; yet the hand of industry is sparcely in very considerable labours through an Island where the soil, though good, is universally mixed with a larger proportion of stone.
	Talamies..	Fortezza S. Giorgio	4	699			
	Patamiana	Dilinata	8	2,861			
Lixuri.	Catoi	Lixuri	17	8,660			
	Anoi	Londagenata.....	10	2,721			
	Pinca	Cardacata	8	1,975	Porto Terra.		
Asso	Eriso	Asso	14	6,005	Asso. Porto Guiscardo.		
		Total..	166	45,399			

Annual Exports of the Island Produce.

Currants.....	3,500,000 lbs.
Oil.....	8,000 barrels.
Red & White Wine	21,000 do.
Fine Muscat do.	12,000 do.
Honey.....	25,000 lbs.
Raw Cotton	15,000 do.
Manufactured do.	50,000 yards.
Fine Liqueurs ..	300 cases.
Linseed	2,000 bushels.
Trana and Red Dye	5,000 lbs.

* I am indebted for this to Sir Hudson Lowe.

In 1822 the estimate was—boys under 16 years of age, 10,808; men under 60 years, 13,717; above do. 2,069; girls under 16 years, 9,094; women under 50 years, 11,981; do. above do. 3,329; natives absent on business, 2,238; total, 53,236. The return for 1832 and 1834 are as follows:—

Years.	Males.	Females.	Strangers.	Total.	Employed in			Births.	Marriages.	Deaths.
					Agriculture.	Manufactures.	Commerce.			
1832	31304	25285	340	56929	12348	1412	931	1377	220	979
1834	30875	25951	348	57174	12689	1471	835	1567	286	799

The Cephalonites are more active, enterprising, and intelligent, than the Corfiots; a number are educated as physicians, and when their studies are completed they migrate to the Morea, Albania, and various parts of Turkey, there being scarcely a town on the Continent without a Cephalonite doctor.

The title of Conte is very prevalent in Cephalonia, but it has little of the dignity which might be expected to attach to nobility; it is a relic of that debased system which the corrupt Venetian Government pursued for the degradation of those whom they wished to render the subservient tools of their sway.

At Argostoli is a museum, now the property of a private family; the counterpart of one, which had been collected and formed by the celebrated Abbé Fontana, at Florence. The family of the Valsamachis got possession of this little collection. Considerable additions have since been made by Sir Demetrio and Signior Paolo Valsamachi, during their residence in various parts of Europe. The politeness of these gentlemen is sufficiently known to all the English officers and vistors who frequent Argostoli. The mineralogical collection is beautiful, consisting of several hundred specimens, according to the classification and nomenclature of Hauy, both in their rude and polished state; much cannot be said however for the arrangement. The anatomy of the human body is most ingeniously represented in wood, and so contrived that all the successive layers of muscles of the body may be removed, and the organization of the internal parts displayed. The attitudes and details are copied from Albinus's beautiful tables of anatomy. There are also some fine wax specimens, one representing a woman in all the different stages of pregnancy. A most masterly one is a bust, said to have been done

at the desire of Napoleon, which represents the brain, and gives a beautiful view of that important and intricate part of anatomy, wherein are exposed the various blood vessels and nerves of the neck. There are a great variety of fossils, and a beautiful collection of shells. A small library is added to the whole, containing some of the choicest and rarest editions of the classics, both ancient and modern.

STAPLE PRODUCTS of the island are currants, oil, wine, honey, linseed, cotton, lamb and hare skins, oats, and fruits of different kinds; the annual quantity of currants produced varies from 5,000,000 to 6,000,000lbs. weight, and are of a finer flavour than those of Patras or Corinth, or indeed of any of the other islands, except Zante.

The wine is next in point of reputation, and owing to the variety of soil, there are no less than 18 different sorts of of wine; of the red that of Livadi enjoys the preference; and of white that of Ribola and Cosanikio: there are three sorts of muscadel of excellent flavour. Of raisins, about 150,000 lbs weight are annually prepared.

Returns of the State of Agriculture in Cephalonia for the year ending January, 1835.

Crops, and Number of Acres in each Crop.												Number of Stock.			
Wheat.	Maize, Barley, &c.	Oats.	Currants.	Olive Oil.	Wine.	Cotton.	Flax.	Pulse.	Pasture.	Total No. of Acres in Crops.	No. of Acres of Land Uncultivated.	Horses.	Horned Cattle.	Sheep.	Goats.
682	6963	635	6242	4323	12232	473	351	1033	640	32934	189786	3753	1416	26493	14274

Nature and Quantity of Produce.									Prices of Produce.							
Wheat.	Maize, Barley, &c.	Oats.	Currants.	Oil.	Wine.	Cotton.	Flax.	Pulse.	Wheat, per Bushel.	Maize, &c. per Bushel.	Oats, per Bushel.	Currants, per 1000 lbs.	Oil, per Barrel.	Wine, per Barrel.	Cotton, per lb.	Flax, per lb.	Pulse, per Bushel.
Bush.	Bush.	Bush.	Lbs.	Brls.	Brls.	Lbs.	Lbs.	Bush.	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.	d.	d.	s. d.
5797	47661	4751	9457400	420	45730	25788	16282	7091	4 6	2 2	1 11	206 7	60 8	12 6	6	6	3 9

There are several small manufactories, viz. one of blue cotton cloths, and two or three for the preparation of meraschino, or rosolio, to which an exquisite flavour is given by the aromatic herbs and flowers of the island; the red, called 'alkermes,' has a delicious fragrance. Ship-building is now carried on; and the deep water close to the shore at Lixuri is favourable for docks.

A Statement of all the Revenue paid into the Public Chest of Cephalonia, at the following epochs.

Different Epochs.	Customs and Exportation of Currants for Venice.	Petty Duties on Sundries.	Decime.	Contract for Tobacco.	Exportation of Currants for the Westward.	Duty on Grain in lieu of the Decime.	National Revenue.	Revenue of the Public Wood.	Revenue of Church Property.	Stamped Paper.	Total.
1793.											
Venetian Government.....	Tallari* 9500	Tallari. 1020	Tallari. 17480	Tallari. 1058	Tallari. 18750	Tallari. ..	Tallari. ..	Tallari. ..	Tallari. 300	Tallari ..	Tallari. 48108
1796.											
First arrival of the French.....	9500	1020	17480	1058	2[illegible]	..	..	..	300	..	49858
1800.											
The same duties continued under the same measures.....											
Republic of the 7 Islands, with provisional Government, and in revolution		*									
1803.											
Republic of the 7 Islands, settled under the Russians.	8552	2000	..	1058	32000	11173	..	..	300	..	55083
1805.											
Same Government.	8650	..	..	1058	32000	11353½	..	..	3722	..	56783½
1807.											
Second arrival of the French and afterwards.....	21844	1721	..	1058	28000	..	30	32½	3722	3829	60236½
1809.											
Change of the present Government.	24000	1721	..	2006	28000	..	30	32½	3722	..	59510½

* Or Imperial Dollars.

GOVERNMENT, &c.—Cephalonia is managed by a resident, or deputy, of the lord high commissioner; but it possesses, like all the other islands, its own municipal government, which levies the corporation duties, and expends them. The custom-house receipts are disbursed by the resident so far as is required for the island expenses, and the residue annually transmitted to the general treasury at Corfu. The other statistics of the island will be found under Corfu,—most, if not all the remarks bearing on which will be found applicable to Cephalonia.

CHAPTER V.

ZANTE.

LOCALITY — HISTORY — PHYSICAL ASPECT — GEOLOGY AND SOIL — CLIMATE AND DISEASES — VEGETABLE KINGDOM — POPULATION — STAPLE PRODUCTS, COMMERCE, &c. &c.

ZANTE, Zacynthos, or Zacynthus, supposed to be so called from its being the burial place of one of the Bœotian followers of Hercules, (Pliny states it was formerly called Hyria), is situated in the parallel of 37. 47. N., and the meridian of 20. 54. E. of Greenwich, 10 miles distant from Cephalonia, and lying opposite the Gulf of Lepanto or Patras, towards the W. angle of the Peloponnesian province of Elis, the nearest point of which, Cape Klarenza, is distant about 15 miles.

The area is 156 square miles; in its greatest length, which lies N.W. and S.E., it measures 24 miles; in breadth 12; and its circumference, the same which was estimated by Strabo, viz. 70 miles.

The history of the island does not present any remarkable materials. The island was formerly dedicated to Diana Opis; to whose honour three or four temples were erected by the Zacynthians. Zante has been supposed to be the burial-place of Cicero, from an urn being found in an ancient sepulchre; and upon a stone covering the tomb was engraved 'M. TVL. CICERO HAVE TV TERTIA ANTONIO, and under the urn containing the ashes, 'AVE MAR. TVL.'*

PHYSICAL ASPECT.—From its exquisite beauty, this island is by common consent called '*Zante*, il fiore di Levante.' In shape it is trapezoidal, or rather irregularly oval, indented with a deep bay at its S.E. extremity. The aspect is decidedly mountainous, and occupying three-fifths of the island, the elevation varying from 500 to 1,300 feet above the sea.

* Sandys.

An extensive ridge of mountains occupies the whole of the western side of the island, and runs along its entire length from N.W. to S.E. Occasional rising grounds skirt the shore. The most striking, as well as the loftiest of these detached eminences (1,300 feet high), is the Monte Scopo, the 'Mons elatus nobilis' of Pliny, which rises out of the plain at the S.E. end of the island. It is washed by the sea on its southern and eastern faces, and gradually is lost on the land side. Towards the northern extremity of the plain, and the town of Zante, a range of lofty cliffs extend for some distance, at the foot of which is a remarkable well, called Crio Nero, which supplies the city and shipping with water. On a detached offset of these cliffs, which were formerly known under the appellation of Acroteria, the castle is situated at 350 feet elevation, and is of considerable antiquity. It crowns the top and one side of the hill, which consists of clay and calcareous stone. This hill rises immediately behind the town to a height of between 300 and 400 feet. Several deep gullies indent its sides; and, to the southward, a very large mass is divided from the main body by a deep and impassable fissure, said to have been occasioned by an earthquake. The town stretches up the side of the hill to within about 100 paces of the entrance of the fortress. The fortress is an inclosure of nearly a triangular shape, containing within its area 12 or 14 acres. The entrance presents somewhat the appearance of modern military architecture, but the remainder is simply a strong old wall, occasionally loop-holed, turreted, or battlemented, without any regularity of plan; consequently, without any military strength. The approach winds along the face of the hill, and the ascent from the town is easy.

The city of Zante is very imposing in its external appearance, viewed frem the sea. It is an open unwalled town, and stretches along a gently curved bay for about a mile and three quarters. At about half a mile from the northern extremity is the point of Crio Nero, jutting into the sea, from whence the town and shipping are supplied with water.

In breadth the town no where exceeds 300 yards, except

where the houses stretch up the hill, upon which the castle is erected. In 1819 the city contained 3,730 private houses, 65 churches, 5 private chapels, 2 convents of monks, and 2 of nuns, and 27 public edifices of various descriptions, including 2 Jewish synagogues. Some of the houses are four or five stories high, built of stone, and strongly clamped together with iron. These edifices are on the Venetian plan of architecture, with triangular lattices to the windows, and many of them are very splendid in their external appearance. The principal streets run parallel to the bay, and are intersected in various directions by lesser lanes and alleys. The Via Larga, or great street would not disgrace any city in Europe. The houses are very handsome, and are furnished with piazzas in front, which afford a shady walk. Under these are the principal shops, which are extremely well stocked with the various products of England, the Continent, and the Levant. The streets are paved and furnished with sewers, which, however, are not so well covered over as might be wished. There are no regular market-places, consequently the streets are obstructed by the sellers of various articles of provisions, &c.*

In the country there are 48 villages and many scattered houses. The external appearance of the houses is very picturesque. Several of them are two stories high, and the peasants pride themselves much in ornamenting them. As in all the other islands, there are no fire-places in the houses, and the majority of them are without proper drains. Upon the whole, however, it may be fairly stated that the inhabitants, whether in the town or the country, are to all appearances much more comfortably lodged than in any other island of the Septinsular union.†

* The names of the principal villages during the Venetian Government were—Ailio, Ampelo, Banato, Belousi, Braca, Cuglipade, S. Kirico, Komiri, Langopodi, Langadachia, Litachia, Luca, Catostari, Chiliomeno, Couchiesi, Courcoulidi, S. Dimitri, Faghia, Fioliti, Gaetaeni, Galaro, Jeri, Jera Cario, Keri, Makerade, Mareais, Muskai, Orthonius, Oxochora, Pigadachia, Pisinounda, Plemonaria, Sarachinada, Schoulichado, Tragaki, and Velima.

† This is the testimony of Dr. Hennen, a close and accurate observer.

The water of the island is peculiar; there are in the town of Zante, 44 cisterns, 1,288 public and private wells, and 3 springs and fountains, which are all so highly saturated with sulphate of lime, or sulphate of soda, as to be unfit for culinary purposes; besides which, from the porous nature of the soil, proper cisterns cannot be constructed to retain the rain water; and owing to this cause, as well as to the proximity of the town to the sea, and its very small elevation above it, the water in the cisterns becomes brackish. Luckily for the inhabitants, there is a never-failing and copious supply of water obtainable from the fountain of Crio Nero, which is no more than about half a mile from the northern end of the city.

Mount Scopo, to the northward of the town, at a few miles distance, abounds in excellent springs.

In many parts of the island, according to St. Sauveur, springs of an oily taste and smell are found; some of them on the shore, though covered with sea water, still retain their sweetness to a certain extent, when drawn up, and the sea water removed from the surface. All these springs have been greatly neglected, and many of them have been destroyed by the earthquakes.

There formerly existed in the great plain near the village of Geracario, between the mountains and the shore, a mineral spring called Bromonero, or fetid water. It was in full flow in the days of St. Sauveur, who describes its mouth as about ten or twelve feet in circumference, pouring forth a limpid water somewhat brackish, but of a very highly offensive sulphurous smell. Mr. Thomas says that it has been purposely filled up on account of its fetor. The natives employed the water as a lotion against the rot in sheep, and for the cure of itch. St. Sauveur states, that to the northward of Bromonero, nearer the mountain, there existed another spring of a sulphurous quality, supposed also to be chalybeate, and much used in obstinate obstructions.

It was supposed that the Bromonero spring had a subterraneous communication with a cave or grotto at the point of Schinari, which has been much talked of under the appella-

tion of the 'grease spring.' From the grotto there issues a substance of a whitish filmy nature, which floats on the surface of the water. It in some degree resembles tallow, but when rubbed between the fingers, it imparts no oily or greasy feel. The smell is sulphurous and very offensive. St. Sauveur says, that it is used by the natives externally for diseases of their cattle. When kept in a bottle, he states that it is quickly dissolved into a yellowish water of a very fetid smell. The air of the cave from whence it issues is most strongly impregnated with sulphuretted hydrogen gas.

GEOLOGY AND SOIL.—The western mountains, as also Mount Scopo, are formed of calcareous rock, with an occasional mixture of gypsum, principally of the grey foliated kind, with a proportion of selinite. The castle hill is composed of a loose friable calcareous matter, or mixed with clay and sand. There is some tolerably hard marble in the island; and around the villages of Agrassi and Sarachira, there are immense masses of selinite and foliated gypsum.

The soil is of three different kinds:—a strong clay in the plain, calcareous on the rising ground, and sandy near the shore.

Dr. Davy, who has attentively examined the subject, informs me that the soils of the Ionian Islands are very various. 'The best are calcareous marls and red clays, containing more or less of calcareous earth; the worst are siliceous sands, containing only a small proportion of clay. Fortunately, the former are by far the most common; and, in consequence, the soils generally may be considered good. In the lowlands marl is most common; in the hilly and mountainous regions red clay predominates. This distinction is well marked in Zante. The fertile plain of Zante almost entirely consists of the former; whilst in the mountainous region, almost equal in extent to the plain, marl is never met with—the soil is almost invariably red clay. In the other islands the same remark holds good, though the different kinds of soil are more intermixed.

'The structure of the Ionian Islands, geologically consi-

dered, is extremely various, with the exception of trap rocks, embracing all the different formations which are best known, from granite and primitive marble to bone breccia. The formation of greatest extent are the tertiary and secondary. Primary rocks I have witnessed nowhere, except in Cerigo, and there only in one place. The secondary rocks are chiefly limestone and slate; most of the highest hills are calcareous. The tertiary formations consist principally of freestone and marls—both calcareous. They appear to be very analogous to those of Sicily. Beds of gypsum are common in them; lignite is frequently met with, and sulphur occasionally.

'I have nowhere seen any traces of volcanic eruption, even the most obscure; and I have in vain sought for trap rocks. Nor are there any hot or warm springs. The absence of them is the more remarkable, considering how subject these islands are to earthquakes.

'In Zante and Cephalonia, where marl is predominant, there are sulphureous springs; and in the latter island there are two or three feeble saline springs. In the other islands the spring water is pretty uniform in composition, and is tolerably pure; it generally contains some carbonate of lime, and occasionally some sulphate; and always an exceedingly minute proportion of common salt.'

Zante possesses petroleum and tar springs, somewhat similar to those which I have described in my second volume, under Trinidad. Herodotus has described (see Beloe's Herodotus, 8vo. vol. iii. p. 106.) this singular phenomenon with an accuracy that is verifiable at the present day.

The springs are situated on the edge of a marshy spot about a quarter of a league from the sea, near the shore of Chieri bay. Three only remain; the others mentioned by Herodotus, having probably been filled up by some of the earthquakes with which the island is so often harassed. The largest of these pools is on the S. side of the morass, of a circular form, paved with stone, about 50 feet in circumference, and about one deep, to the surface of the tar. The two

others are smaller; they are situated on the northern side of the morass, at the distance of 200 paces. The petroleum, or mineral tar, lies on the bottom and sides of the pool, from which it is collected to the amount of about 50 or 60 barrels annually, and is applied to the purposes of smearing boats and out-of-door work, as railings, &c. It is said to cement stones together with singular cohesiveness. It has been attempted to employ it for cordage, but it is said not to answer the purpose, as it rots the hemp, and renders the cables friable.*

The surface of the water which lies above the tar, is iridescent in clear weather, occasioned probably by a minute portion of naphtha, or the finer parts of the tar floating on it. The body of the water is limpid, and by those who have tasted it, is said to be by no means unpleasant, although sensibly impregnated with the bituminous matter. The following analysis of the water of the N. spring was made by the Rev. Robert Walpole, A. M. :—Sulphate of magnesia 90 grs., sulphate of soda 40 grs., selenite 10 grs., muriate of lime 28 grs., muriate of magnesia 24 grs., muriate of soda 172 grs., resinous matter 8 grs., loss 4 grs., total 372 grs. Eight ounces of the tar yield, by distillation, two ounces of oil similar to that known under the name of petroleum.

No inhabitants reside near the tar springs, as the neighbourhood is considered peculiarly unhealthy, especially in the autumnal months, and they extend their influence to a small island in the bay. St. Sauveur says, that these springs seem to rise in the interior of the island in an easterly direction; to the westward they communicate with the sea. He observes, that the tar is thrown up as it were in the act of boiling, but that the superincumbent water remains at rest; both the water and the tar are quite cool even in the hottest weather. The bottom of these springs, he says, has never been sounded, and any buoyant substance sunk by art in them, is found floating on the surface of the sea shortly afterwards; the same occurs at Trinidad. In April the springs fill nearly

* Dr. Hennen.

to overflow, at which period the peasants skim off the tar as in the time of Herodotus, not however by means of myrtle boughs, but by pails.

The water of the springs, as has already been stated, is limpid; that from the largest is transparent, and smells strong of tar; that from the smaller is as limpid as the other, but sweet, and not so strong smelling: the water is used by the peasants as a cure for fever; it is cathartic without violence, and promotes digestion.

How far these tar springs may be connected with volcanic action is an interesting question, for, as Dr. Hennen remarks, there is no part of the globe in which earthquakes are so frequent as in Zante; a week scarcely passes without a shock, greater or less in degree, and they seem to have increased considerably in frequency of late years. It was a popular idea, formerly, that the shocks of the same violent description were felt only once in 25 years. The most severe shocks on record occurred in the years 1514, 1664, 1710, 1742, 1769, 1791, 1809, 1810, 1816, 1818, and 1820. Perhaps the most severe of all was that of the 29th December, 1820, which took place at four o'clock in the morning.*

The concussion was first felt in quick perpendicular and then in horizontal vibrations, and so very violent, that the houses rocked to and fro like a ship in a heavy sea; their tiles were either shaken off, or altogether loosened; the beams forced their way through the walls, and many of the roofs fell in with terrific crashes. The dismay caused thereby was rendered doubly horrific from the extreme degree of darkness that prevailed at the moment, preventing the people seeing the fearful devastation occurring around them.

Seven new houses were completely thrown down by the concussion, and 860 so materially damaged, that two-thirds must be levelled with the ground; nor has a single church or house in the town, however strongly built, escaped injury more or less, although many of them resisted the great earthquakes of 1767 and 1791.

* It is thus described by an eye-witness, Staff-surgeon Thomas.

The earthquake was preceded, during the previous day, towards the evening, by a dense state of the atmosphere, a strong wind at the sirocco point, with a heavy rumbling sea; and about half an hour before the concussion took place, a meteor was seen by several shepherds who were visiting their flocks, of a considerable size, resembling a circular ball of fire, descending, as it were, to the southward of Mount Scopo, the horizon appearing at the same time, and in the same direction, in a blaze, at which the men were so much frightened that they returned home with all possible speed, telling what they had seen.

Several slight shocks continued to succeed throughout the course of the morning; and a little before noon a very severe one took place, while the constituted authorities, with the Proto Papa and the whole of his clergy, together with a vast concourse of the people, were assembled in one of the principal churches, returning thanks for their recent deliverance, which shook the building in the most terrific manner, threatening destruction to all within; yet not a soul attempted to escape from the menaced danger during this awful scene of solemn thanksgiving. Half an hour previous to this (at 11 o'clock) there fell the heaviest shower of hail ever witnessed in this island, or perhaps in any other country. The hailstones were solid pieces of compact ice, of irregular and various forms, and so hard that they could not be easily broken by the hand, weighing from three to four ounces avoirdupois, and measuring from seven to eight inches in circumference. To this tremendous shower succeeded a gale of wind, still blowing from the sirocco or S. E. point, accompanied with thunder, very vivid forked lightning and rain, which, towards evening and during the night, fell in such torrents, that immense quantities of earth and clay were washed away from the Castle Hill, and coming down with irresistible force, several houses, with their inhabitants, were swept off by the flood, many of whom were dreadfully bruised, and two persons were actually carried into the sea and drowned.

'During the whole of this melancholy night, the inhabitants

were all in a state of the utmost anxiety, fearing a return of the earthquake to add to the horror of their situation, the rain poured through the roofs of the houses as through a sieve, in consequence of the tiles having been loosened, and every apartment was drenched in wet. Providentially, only ten lives were lost altogether; viz. eight by the falling in of the houses, and two drowned, as above stated: 29 persons were severely wounded, and half a million dollars worth of property destroyed.

By accounts received from Malta, the Morea and the neighbouring islands of Cephalonia, Ithaca, and Santa Maura, it would appear that the phenomenon must have been general as it prevailed at all those places at the same time that it was felt here.

Surgeon Thomas was on the night of the great shock, on board a government schooner, then at anchor in the bay; and being awake at the time, was perfectly aware of what was going on when he perceived the guns on deck thumping or jumping up and down, as it were, over his head, and then the vessel was so much shook that he feared she was going to pieces.

Major Brandreth, of the Royal artillery, a most intelligent eye-witness of this awful visitation, stated, that although so many houses were so seriously damaged, yet scarcely a pane of glass was broken. Dr. Hennen asks had the electrical properties of glass any share in the production of this singular exception?

That Zante has within itself a prolific source of earthquakes is unquestionable; but it is sometimes affected by those of other countries. Those of Lisbon and Calabria were felt strongly in all the Ionian islands, but especially at Zante.

CLIMATE AND DISEASES.—As may be expected from its mountainous nature and situation, the climate of Zante is very trying: in winter it is extremely variable and wet. In summer the heat is very oppressive in the city, principally in consequence of the reflection from the high stone walls, which

are generally plastered and white-washed, and from the streets, which are paved with broad flags. The thermometer, in the streets, often rises, during the summer months, to 116° or 120°. The maximum in the shade, for a period of four years, was 91°, to which it attained in the month of August 1820: the minimum was 50°, to which it fell in January and December 1818.

Meteorological Range for the Year 1821.

	Thermometer.		Winds, &c.		Thermometer.		Winds, &c.
	Maximum.	Minimum.			Maximum.	Minimum.	
January	64	53	N. E. high.	July	84	77	N. W. cool.
February	60	54	S. W. rainy.	August	82	79	Do. rainy.
March	66	60	N. E. fine.	September	76	71	Do. dry.
April	69	65	W. rainy.	October	72	65	N. E. lightning and rainy.
May	79	69	N. W.				
June	82	73	W. unsettled.	November	68	58	W. dry.
				December	65	59	N. fine.

The winds are extremely variable: in some of the winter months we find them northerly and dry; in others, westerly, hot, and rainy. In the months of June, July, August, and September, for the four years under review, they appear to have blown almost uniformly from northern points, generally from the N.W. The winds from the northerly points are generally cool and refreshing, while, from the southerly, especially from the S.E. all the inconveniences of the sirocco are felt in a very striking degree. Mr. Thomas, Surgeon to the Forces, who has passed several years at Zante, observes, 'Snow seldom falls here. and never lies on the ground, excepting on the mountain tops for a few hours. I have scarcely heard an instance of water freezing, although I have felt the northerly wind bitingly cold when it passes over the Arcadian mountains while covered with snow.' The prevailing winds are the north-westerly in the spring; northerly in summer; southerly (or damp sirocco, with a dense atmosphere) in autumn; and south-westerly in winter, from which quarter it blows occasionally very violently, but not of long continuance.

The first rains generally fall about the latter end of September or beginning of October, and very heavy falls occur for several days together throughout the winter, (but with fine intervening weather), when violent discharges of electrical matter occasionally take place with very awful explosions, particularly about the period of the spring and autumnal equinoxes. In the month of March, 1817, several houses were materially damaged in the town and country by them, but happily no lives were lost. It seldom rains after the month of May, and when any does occur subsequent to that period, a sickly season is immediately prognosticated, generally upon good grounds, there being no doubt of the direct effects of the atmosphere on diseases, which evidently keep pace with, or follow its different changes. Thus it is that phlegmasiæ prevail when rain and heat are succeeded by cold northerly winds; pyrexiæ and exanthemata succeed the damp and hot southerly sirocco, and pyrexiæ of the febris intermittens and typhus mitior type, succeed the damp, cold, westerly winds; but this last and typhus gravior are diseases little known in this country, although it is a name frequently but erroneously given, in many instances, by the native practitioners, to the febris remittens, in its last stage.

The number of medical practitioners in 1822 were ascertained to be as follows:—

	Town.	Country.	Total.
Physicians and Surgeons	18	17	35
Assistant Surgeons	12	57	69
Apothecaries	16	5	21
	46	79	125

As these gentlemen are equally numerous in the other islands, their proportion to the population may be readily ascertained.

The births, marriages, and deaths among the native inhabitants, as nearly as they could be ascertained, for four years, were as follows:—

Years.	Marriages.	Births.	Deaths.			Grand Total.
			From Infancy to Ten Years of Age.	From Ten Years of Age to Twenty.	From Twenty Years of Age and upwards.	
1818	301	882	236	62	314	1795
1819	319	981	167	51	256	1774
1820	314	1064	499	66	380	2323
1821	296	938	571	56	428	2289
Total	1230	3865	1473	235	1378	8181

There are many instances of longevity among the Zantiotes,—and several inhabitants are known to be above 90 years of age, in the full possession of all their faculties.

VEGETABLE KINGDOM.—Zante abounds in aromatic herbs the odour of which is experienced some distance at sea: and the delicious flavour of the Zantiote honey is doubtless owing to the fragrance of the herbage. Currants, oil, wine and flax are the principal vegetable products. Horticulture is much attended to, and indeed it may be observed, that science and skill is more devoted in Zante to rural operations than in any of the other islands.

The following is a catalogue of the plants, shrubs, and trees of the island of Zante:—

Acanthus mollis, acer sempervirens, aconitum lycoctonum, adiantum capillus, adonis flammea, agrimonia eupatoria, alcea rosea, alisma plantago, allium cepa, do. porrum, do. sativum, althæa officinalis, amaranthus blitum, do. tricolor, amygdalus communis, do. amara, do. fragilis, do. persica, anagallis arvensis, anemone coronaria, do. hepatica, angelica sylvestris, anthemis nobilis, antirrhinum majus, apium graveolens, do. petroselinum, arbutus unedo, aristolochia longa, do. rotunda, artemisia abrotanum, do. absinthium, arundo donax, arum dracunculus, do. maculatum, asparagus officinalis, asplenium adiantum nigrum, do. ceterach, do. ruta muraria, do. scolopendrium, asarum europæum, asphodelus ramosus, aster novæ angliæ.

Ballota nigra, bellis perennis, betonica officinalis, borago officinalis, brassica (multæ speciès), buxus sempervirens.

Cactus ficus indica, calendula officinalis, capparis spinosa, capsicum annum, cardamine pratensis, carthamus tinctorius, centaurea calcitrapa, ceratonia siliqua, cerinthe major, cheiranthus cheiri, chenopodium vulvaria, chrysanthemum leucanthemum, do. indicum (flore pleno), clematis vitalba, cicer arietinum, cichorium intybus, cineraria maritima, citrus aurantium, do. medica, cochlearia armoracia, do. officinalis, colchicum autumnale, colutea arborescens, convolvulus arvensis, coriandrum sativum, corylus avellana, crocus officinalis, cucubalus behen, cucumis melo, do. sativus, cucurbita citrullus, do. lagenaria, do. pepo, cupressus sempervirens, cuscuta europæa, cynara scolymus, cynoglossum officinalis, cyperus longus.

Datura stramonium, delphinum Ajacis, dianthus caryophyllus, dipsacus laciniatus.

Euphorbia dendroides, do. lathyrus, ervum lens, eryngium maritimum, erysimum officinale.

Fagus castanea, ficus carica, fragaria vesca, fumaria bulbosa, do. officinalis.

Galium aparine, do. verum, gentiana centaurium, geranium phæum, do. inginnans, do. moschatum, do. robertianum, do. triste, gladiolus communis, glycyrhiza echinata, gossypium herbaceum.

Hedera helix, helleborus niger, hippuris vulgaris, hyacinthus comosus, do. orientale, hyoscyamus aureus, do. niger, hypericum perfoliatum, do. perforatum, do. quadrangulare, hyssopus officinalis.

Jasminum azoricum, do. grandiflorum, do. odoratissimum, do. officinale.

Ilex aquifolium, iris florentina, do. germanica.

Juglans regia.

Lapsana zacintha, laurus nobilis, lavandula spica, lemna minor, leontodon taraxacum, lepidium sativum, lichen (plures species), lilium candidum, do. chalcedonicum, linum usitatissimum, lonicera caprifolium, lychnis flos cuculi, lythrum salicaria.

Malva rotundifolia, marrubium vulgare, matricaria chamomilla, do. parthenium, melia azedarach, melissa officinalis,

mentha arvensis, do. crispa, mentha pulegium, do. sylvestris, mercurialis annua, do. perennis, mespilus germanica, mimosa farnesiana, momordica elaterium, do. balsamina, morus alba, do. nigra, musa paradisiaca, myrtus communis.

Narcissus jonquilla, do. orientalis, do. minor, nerium oleander, nicotiana tabacum, nigella sativa, nyctanthes sambac, nymphæa alba, do. lutea.

Ocymum basilicum, do. crispum, olea europæa, do. sylvestris, ononis spinosa, orchis morio, origanum heracleoticum, do. majorana, do. vulgare, osmunda regalis, oxalis corniculata.

Papaver rhœas, do. somniferum, pæonia officinalis, parietaria officinalis, passiflora cærulea, pastinaca sativa, phaseolus caracalla, phlomis fruticosa, phœnix dactylifera, phytolacca decandra, pinus cedrus, do. cembra, do. picea, do. pinea, do. sylvestris, pisum sativum, plantago coronopus, do. cynops, do. major, do. media, do. psyllium, platanus orientalis, polyanthes tuberosa, polygonum aviculare, do. bistorta, polypodium filix mas, polytrichum commune, populus alba, do. nigra, portulaca oleracea, potentilla reptans, prunus armeniaca, do. austera, do. brignola, do. cerasus, do. cerea, do. damascena, do. domestica, do hungarica, do. juliana, do. pernicona, pulmonaria officinalis, punica granatum, pyrus communis, do. cydonia do. malus.

Quercus robur.

Rhamnus zizyphus, raphanus rusticanus, do. sativus, reseda luteola, do. odorata, ricinus communis, rosa alba, do. centifolia, do. gallica, do. lutea, rosmarinus officinalis, rubia tinctorum, rubus fruticosus, rumex acutus, ruscus aculeatus, ruta graveolens.

Saccharum officinarum, salsola sativa, salix alba, do. babylonica, do. pentandra, salvia officinalis, do. pomifera, do. pratensis, sambucus ebulus, do. nigra, scabiosa arvensis, do. succisa, scandix cerefolium, do. pecten, scilla maritima, scirpus lacustris, scolymus hispanicus, scorzonera humilis, scrophularia nodosa, sedum acre, do. album, do. telephium, sempervivum arboreum, senecio jacobæa, sesamum orientale, sinapis nigra, sisymbrium nasturtium, do. sophia, smilax as-

pera, solanum melongena, do. nigrum, do. sodomeum, sonchus oleraceus, spartium junceum, spinacia oleracea, statice limonium, symphytum officinale.

Tagetes patula, tanacetum balsamita, do vulgare, teucrium chamædrys, do. polium, do. scordium, thlaspi bursa pastoris, thymus serpyllum, do. vulgaris, tribulus terrestris, trifolium melilotus officinalis, triticum repens, tropæolum majus, tussilago farfara, typha angustifolia.

Ulmus campestris, urtica dioica, do. pilulifera, do. urens.

Valeriana rubra, verbascum nigrum, do. thapsus, verbena officinalis, do. triphyla, veronica beccabunga, do. officinalis, do. spicata, viola odorata, do. tricolor, vitex agnus castus, vitis apyrena, do. vinifera.

Xanthium strummarium.

Zea mays, zinnia multiflora.

The state of agriculture in Zante is better than in the other islands; many of the farmers are educated and enlightened proprietors, who give their attention especially to agriculture; in Zante alone is manure much used. In the cultivation of the currant and vine Zante is superior to Cephalonia and Ithaca, although there the plantations are carefully tended.

The cultivation and products of Zante will be seen by the following official returns for 1835.

Crops, and Number of Acres in each Crop.												Number of Stock.			
Wheat.	Maize, Barley, &c.	Oats.	Currants.	Olive Oil.	Wine.	Cotton.	Flax.	Pulse.	Pasture.	Total No. of Acres in Crops.	No. of Acres of Land Uncultivated.	Horses.	Horned Cattle.	Sheep.	Goats.
7182	966	492	6440	16766	13600	327	134	64	1474	45971	53869	3152	944	14025	16101

Nature and Quantity of Produce.									Prices of Produce.									
Wheat.	Maize, Barley, &c.	Oats.	Currants.	Oil.	Wine.	Cotton.	Flax.	Pulse.	Wheat, per Bushel.	Maize, &c. per Bushel.	Oats, per Bushel.	Currants, per 1000 lbs.	Oil, per Barrel.	Wine, per Barrel.	Cotton, per lb.	Flax, per lb.	Pulse, per Bushel.
Bush. 25796	Bush. 1155	Bush. 630	lbs. 7030000	Brls. 1682	Brls. 63730	lbs. 6220	lbs. 3645	Bush. 757	s. d. 4 0	s. d. 2 6	s. d. 2 2	£. s. d. 216 8	s. d. 45 10	s. d. 10 0	s. d. 0 10	d. 7½	s. d. 4 2

CHAPTER VI.

SANTA MAURA.

LOCALITY — HISTORY — PHYSICAL ASPECT—GEOLOGY AND SOIL—CLIMATE AND DISEASES — VEGETABLE KINGDOM — POPULATION — STAPLE PRODUCTS—COMMERCE, &c.

SANTA MAURA Island (olim Neritos, then Leucadia, from λευκος, white, owing to its white rocks) formed by the artificial construction of a channel dividing it from the main land of Acarnania, with Cephalonia 10 miles to the southward, and Corfu 35 to the N.W.; is situate in 38. 40. N. lat., and 20. 46. E. of Greenwich, having an area of 180 square miles; in extreme length 23, in extreme breadth 10, and about 60 miles in circumference.

The island of Santa Maura was anciently known under the appellation of Neritos and Leucadia. According to Eustathius, there were three sons of Pterelaus; Ithacus, who gave name to a country, Neritus to the Acarnanian promontory, and Polyctor to a place called Polyctorum. The island, on its separation from the main land, was at first solely inhabited by Arcananians; but at a latter period, became a dependence of the Corinthians. Homer, in his Odyssey, mentions that the Leucadians furnished their contingence of men and vessels in the famous siege of Troy: these were commanded by Ulysses, who had under him the Ithacans, the Cephalonians, and the men of Zante, and Crocylea. Æneas, on his return touched at this island:

> 'At length Leucate's cloudy top appears,
> And the sun's temple, which the sailor fears:
> Resolved to breathe awhile from labour past,
> Our crooked anchors from the prow we cast.'
>
> ÆNEAS, *Lib. iii.*

By this it evidently appears that the temple of Apollo

Leucas was feared by the sailors of those times; and the superstitious custom in the present day of throwing money in the sea underneath it, originated from the sacrifices formerly offered to propitiate the favor of the fabled deity. Oxen were sacrificed on the altar of this temple, which custom the Romans strictly followed whilst in possession of the island. The Leucadians entered into the famous league of the Greeks against Philip of Macedon.

Dion, in his expedition against Dionysius, the tyrant of Syracuse, was assisted by Timonides, at the head of a considerable force of Leucadians. After the fall of the various small republics of Greece, this island passed under the Roman domination; Lucius G. Flaminius conquered it. In the reign of Pompey, the famous temple of Apollo was pillaged and reduced to ruins by pirates. Santa Maura remained under the the Eastern Empire until the latter's fall, and was then governed in succession by several princes whose names are lost: it was afterwards conquered by Logan, the Turkish admiral, by the command of Mahomet the Second. Pesaro, the Venetian general, took it from the Turks, in 1502, but the senate at Corfu surrendered it up to that power on the conclusion of peace. In 1684, Morosini attacked the island, and conquered it, after an obstinate resistance from the Ottomans. When the Morea was overrun by the latter in 1715, the Venetians fled from the island, taking with them all the artillery and stores, and razing the fortifications. On the following year they repossessed themselves of the island, retaining it until the French destroyed their shadow of a republic.

In the year 1810, the English, under the command of General Oswald, besieged the fortress, in which the bravery of our troops, and skill of their leader, were displayed most highly. Our loss on this occasion was necessarily great; Major Clarke, of the 35th regiment, fell whilst storming the battery in front of the isthmus, on the bridge side. His remains were interred in one of the bastions of the fort, and a marble tomb records his intrepidity.*

* Kendrick.

PHYSICAL ASPECT.*—Santa Maura is a mass of mountains, of which St. Elias, the highest, rises to an elevation of 3,000 feet above the level of the sea. The figure of the island is somewhat triangular; the N.W. coast, which forms the base line, runs straight and perpendicular, raising the land to a considerable height above the level of the sea; from this the surface inclines irregularly towards the eastern coast, giving the whole nearly an eastern aspect. A part, however, considerable in population and productiveness, although of small extent, owing to its narrowness, enjoys a fine western aspect. This is formed by the ridge-line of the N.W. face being, as it were, levelled off, and giving a strip of land of about twenty miles in length a gentle slope towards the N.W. Along this tract are many populous villages, and much cultivated ground. It is, from its great height, and free exposure to the northerly and westerly winds, the healthiest part of the island during the summer months. The northest coast is, as above said, nearly throughout perpendicular, containing no single harbour or road, and opposing a mass of pure limestone to the great swell which is rolled in by the northerly and westerly winds towards the bottom of the Gulph of Prevesa. It would appear, that the constant action of this great body of water has reduced the island at this side to its present form; and that the detritus, or loosened matter, swept along the coast by the southerly and westerly winds, and carried round the north-eastern point of the island, has been deposited in a long line, which is the present isthmus. This will account for the otherwise irreconcilable variance of the descriptions of ancient writers with the present appearance of this part of the island: and will further explain the cause of the changes which have taken place within the memory even of the present inhabitants.

The south-east end is narrow for about 10 miles, which gives the whole island a disproportionate length. The hills

* I am indebted for this description to Surgeon Goodison, who resided for several years at Santa Maura, and whose talents in general matters, as also in his profession, are well known.

at the extremity towards Cape Ducato, are disposed in a very singular manner; they consist of a regular series of cones laid together in a right line, and diminishing gradually in size to the cape; they are cut upon the N.W. faces by a plane, which is parallel with their axis, and continuous with the N.W. coast of the island. The faces shewn by these sections are of a beautiful whiteness, one of them constitutes Sappho's Leap. Their convex surfaces are turned to the southward in beautiful swells, which are covered with evergreen shrubs down to the water's edge. Their figure is so nearly mathematical, that the S.E. coast is here indented with regular spherical angles. From the sea this singular formation is not so evident, but it is very striking when viewed from the tops of the cones upon returning from Sappho's Leap. The change in the point of sight readily accounts for this; as in the former instance, the curves and angles are viewed, the eye being in the same plane with them; whereas, in the latter case, the spectator is placed almost perpendicularly above them.

The next remarkable feature in the topography of the island is, the new isthmus. From the N.E. angle of the island a narrow strip of land of about four miles in length, and of a very irregular waving line, extends across the mouth of the channel towards the coast of Acarnania, which it reaches within 100 yards; it then runs parallel with that coast for about half a mile, eking out the channel an equal length. From near its extreme point, at a small angle, it sends off a ledge of rocks towards the north, which is of very singular appearance and composition.

When seen at even a short distance, it bears a perfect resemblance to a mole running out into the sea, and it is by many believed to have been a work of the Romans. The ledge is about half a mile in length, and from 20 to 30 feet wide, with deep water at each side. Its breadth and direction are nearly uniform throughout, which gives it so much the appearance of a work of art. The rock of which it is composed consists of gravel and sand, accumulated there by

the water, and formed according to the size of the particles so brought together, into sand-stone or pudding-stone. The substance which unites them is become as hard as the particles themselves; for upon breaking the mass with a hammer, the fracture goes through them equally with the interstitial matter. The whole forms an exceedingly hard stone, capable of taking a certain degree of polish. It is used for building, as also for making stones for flour mills and oil presses. The isthmus seems to have been formed on this rock as a basis; the latter is found along its whole line under the loose gravel, at the sea-water edge, and appears to be rapidly advancing.

Amaxichi, the chief town, about a mile in circumference, is situate on a very beautiful plain two miles long, one broad, and thickly covered with olives, and contains upwards of 6,000 inhabitants, the remaining being scattered among 32 villages, some of them situate on the very tops of the mountains. At the S. W. extremity of the island is the bold promontory of Cape Ducato, the celebrated leap of Sappho for the cure of her unfortunate love; it is little more than 100 feet high, and beneath is the deep blue sea. There are no rivers, but the island is well supplied with springs and natural fountains.

Santa Maura, like the other Greek islands, was at one time a place of considerable importance. The ancient town of Leucadia is situated about three miles from the present city, near the coast. The ruins furnish ample proof of the once powerful state of the island. Several inscriptions were discovered by the Venetians, who removed them to Venice, where the greater part are still to be seen. The style in building this city is sufficient testimony that it could not have been erected at any remote period; it is evident, in placing the huge blocks on one another, that the art of cementing them was lost, since the several attempts to dislodge them have invariably succeeded, which in other cases is next to an impossibility.

The ancient city was built by the people of Nerikos, a co-

lony of Corinthians who had settled on the opposite coast, but who, probably for the sake of security, removed thither.

The fortress is a strong and irregular six-sided figure, its largest diameter running N. and S., flanked by towers and outworks. It stands on the isthmus which once connected the island with the adjacent continent, there termed Acarnania, and has the open sea on the N. and N. W.; on the S. and S. E. is a lagoon, and by means of wet ditches on the other points; it is completely insulated.

The fortress was built in the thirteenth century, by a Venetian prince of the house of Facchi, who likewise built the aqueduct that runs from the castle isthmus to the town: the latter is the greatest, and indeed the only curiosity in the island. This causeway, which is upwards of half a mile in length, serves as a bridge, it having 365 arches; in height it is nearly three feet above the surface of the water; its breadth is so extremely narrow, that two persons cannot securely walk abreast. The peasants, in their superstitious fancies, believe it to have been the work of Satan. The aqueduct was repaired by Bajazet, the Ottoman Emperor, but is now in total disuse, owing to the pipes having been destroyed by an earthquake, and some of the larger stones of the construction having been removed for building purposes.

Geology and Soil.—The island consists of a mass of mountains, the primary ridge running nearly N. and S., in the direction of the Cassiopæan range, which is a secondary to the great chain of Pindus, upon the continent; the basis is secondary limestone. This ridge terminates in a bold promontory at the southern end of the island, called Capo Ducato, near which is a singularly romantic precipice, long celebrated as being the scene of the fate of the unfortunate Sappho. The cliffs here are of a splendid whiteness, from which the ancient name Leucadia is said to have been derived. Secondary ridges traverse the island in a direction generally towards the southward and eastward: they are composed of crystallized, compact, fibrous, and earthy carbonate

of lime, and of gypsum, the lime always predominating. The second species of rock occurs frequently in beautiful stratifications, immense tables being piled, horizontally in general, and some with various of obliquity in the dip. They are of greater or less degrees of hardness, probably according to the quantity of carbonate of lime which enters into the composition, and are of various thickness. Some, from their durability and regularity of form, make excellent stones for building. The secondary ridges diverge from the primary, or great ridge, at the centre of the island. The principal of these is a mountain called el Vouno, which is again subdivided into parallel ridges, running above the village of Catechori and Porto Englimenò. In a ravine which descends from the N. E. of Catechori to the southern extremity of the port Englimenò, the rock exhibits a very singular appearance: one would imagine that the S. E. side had been formed by a mass which had fallen from the mountain at the opposite side of the ravine; the strata having their edges turned up, and projecting one beyond the other in a series, like a half fallen pack of cards. To the mineralogist, the stratification of rock is here very interesting. The rock which generally covers the surface is of a very rough appearance, being perforated in every direction by round holes, a form which it assumes, probably from the action of water, by which it had been covered at its first formation. Stalactites and calcareous spars are found in the crevices, deep below the surface, and in the vaults both artificial and natural. Masses of pyrites and bog iron ore are occasionally met with on the surface, and the limestone is sometimes seen tinged with the oxide of iron. Native sulphur is said to have been found near the village of Porro, in the interior; and a sulphureous chalybeate water flows from a rocky fissure near the root of the isthmus, not far from the fortress. The soil is poor, and in a few places alluvial; but its very poverty and thinness seems to render it the better adapted for the growth of the vine, olive and currant.

Climate.—The temperature is much influenced by the

winds that blow; during four years' observations, viz. from 1818 to 1821, the mercury (F.) did not descend below 46°, nor ascend beyond 92°, the greatest difference in one year between winter and summer being 41°; in most years the maximum of the thermometer is 80°. It sometimes sinks to the freezing point in severe winters, while, as in the other islands, it frequently exhibits a variation of 20° in the course of 24 hours.

The prevalent winds of Santa Maura are northerly and westerly; but the baneful sirocco often blows, and often continues so to do for 60 or 80 hours, to the serious inconvenience and injury of the sick and convalescent.

The fact alluded to by Dr. Hennen, in his account of the winds of Corfu, is to be observed in a very striking manner at Santa Maura; viz. the regularity of the morning and evening breezes, which prevail through the gulf of Prevesa from an easterly point from sunrise to noon, and from a westerly point from noon to sunset. Mr. Goodison notices a modification of this fact, which takes place in the Santa Maura channel, viz. the blowing of a southerly wind up the southern entrance, and of a brisk north-wester at the same time through the opposite extremity of the channel. This variation entirely depends on the formation of the adjacent mountains, which throw off the winds that strike against them, at an angle always influenced by the angle of incidence.

During the winter months the fall of snow on the mountains of Santa Maura is considerable, and the winds which blow over them are then piercingly cold. The heat of the summer months is particularly oppressive, and in the autumn the sudden changes of temperature are so marked, that after the first rains, there is often a variation of from 10° to 20° in the 24 hours.

The quantity of rain which falls annually is very considerable; it is not confined to any particular month, as there are few during which showers, and even heavy torrents, do not occasionally fall. From September to March, however, are the most rainy months. The heavy summer rains of 1822

fell before the end of July, and the first autumnal about the beginning of September.

Earthquakes are very frequent occurrences in Santa Maura; they are generally unconnected with those of other places, but the great earthquake of Calabria affected the island very severely. In 1820, between the 12th of February and 31st of March, there were 63 severe shocks of earthquakes, which placed in ruins about 70 houses in the town, and left most of the others in a tottering condition. During the above period there were also about 800 slight shocks, according to the most accurate accounts kept, and sometimes the earth continued trembling for the space *of* 12 *or* 14 *hours together*, without any perceptible cessation. Assistant Surgeon Lavens, of the 28th regiment, says that, two or three days prior to the first shock on the 12th of February, the weather was exceedingly oppressive, a number of fiery meteors were passing among the clouds, and the salt-water lake situated between the fortress and the town was almost dry, a phenomenon which has always been considered by some of the oldest inhabitants as a forerunner of earthquakes. The same was observed previous to the dreadful earthquake in Sicily and Italy in 1783, which was felt severely in Santa Maura, and ruined several houses in the island.

The atmosphere during these late earthquakes was in continual variation, and the wind veered to all points of the compass, but the shocks were observed to be more frequent when it blew from the S. W.; all the slighter ones were preceded by a distinct hollow rumbling noise, but some of the greater shocks came on without any previous notice. The inhabitants of the town were in a deplorable condition all this time, being obliged to seek shelter in miserable huts of temporary construction, not venturing to sleep in their houses for upwards of two months, fearing the shocks would increase in violence; and the minds of the superstitious were kept in a constant state of alarm and agitation by ridiculous prophecies from time to time in circulation, that the town was to be totally destroyed.

The diseases are similar to those described in the other islands; the following shews the

Average Strength of the Garrison of Santa Maura, from 21st July, 1815, to 20th December, 1821; also the daily Number of Sick.

Years	1815.	1816.	1817.	1818.	1819.	1820.	1821.
Strength of the Garrison ..	195	195	268	307	495	322	359
Average daily No. of Sick ..	6	8	14	14	34	13	21

The cultivation and produce of the island will be seen from the following official returns to January, 1835:—

Crops, and Number of Acres in each Crop.												Number of Stock.			
Wheat.	Maize, Barley, &c.	Oats.	Currants.	Olive Oil.	Wine.	Cotton.	Flax.	Pulse.	Pasture.	Total No. of Acres in Crops.	No. of Acres of Land Uncultivated.	Horses.	Horned Cattle.	Sheep.	Goats.
1234	3249	380	8	8143	4127	111	75	212	5494	17539	97661	2223	1786	11513	28118

Nature and Quantity of Produce.								Prices of Produce.							
Wheat.	Maize, Barley, &c.	Oats.	Currants.	Wine.	Cotton.	Flax.	Pulse.	Wheat, per Bushel.	Maize, &c. per Bushel.	Oats, per Bushel.	Currants, per 1000 lbs.	Wine, per Barrel.	Cotton, per Lb.	Flax, per Lb.	Pulse, per Bushel.
Bush.	Bush.	Bush.	Lbs.	Brls.	Lbs.	Lbs.	Bush.	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.	d.	s. d.
12001	31594	3694	4000	62292	6515	23418	2761	3 11	2 0	2 0	195 0	5 0	1 0	4	5 6

The other statistics and remarks will be found under Corfu.

CHAPTER VII.

ITHACA, PAXO, CERIGO, &c.

AND GENERAL VIEW OF THE VALUE OF THE ISLANDS.

LOCALITY—HISTORY—GEOLOGY AND SOIL—CLIMATE—POPULATION—PRODUCTIONS, &c.

ITHACA.

ITHACA (called *Thiaki* by the natives, *Val de Compare* by the Venetians), in lat. 38. 25. N., long. 20. 40. E., is bounded on the S. and E. by Cephalonia, from which it is distant about eight miles; on the E. and N. E. by the channel of Zante, and a group of small islands, the ancient Echinades; on the N. by a part of Santa Maura; and on the N. W., W. and S. W. by the channel which runs between Santa Maura and Cephalonia. It is distant from the main land of Acarnania about 15 miles at the nearest point, and somewhat more than 30 miles distant, in a S. E. direction, lies the opening of the gulf of Lepanto. The shape is irregular, the extreme length from N. to S. being 18 miles, extreme breadth, five, but in some places not more than one mile and a half; its circumference about 30, and its area 44 square miles.

Whether this little island were the celebrated Ithaca of Homer, is not yet a settled point; its very name was forgotten until of late. But the modern inhabitants call their home *Thiaki;* and Sir William Gell has, I think, proved it to be the actual birth-place and patrimonial kingdom of Ulysses.

The appearance of Ithaca is unprepossessing, the whole island being a mass of mountains running in an irregular ridge E. and W.; or it may be considered a single mountain divided into rugged and mis-shapen rocks: as Homer says—

> 'Horrid with cliffs, our meagre land allows
> Thin herbage for the mountain goat to brouze.'—B. iv.

Again—

'The rugged soil allows no level space
For flying chariot or the rapid race.'—B. xiii.

Mount Stephanos and Mount Neritos are the two highest points, the former rising immediately to the south, and Neritos to the eastward, above the chief town called Vathi, situate in one of the inlets of a bay four miles deep, and one of the most secure harbours in the Mediterranean.

Vathi is little more than a single street, upwards of a mile long, containing from 3 to 4000 inhabitants; the houses built of stone, and the town remarkable for its cleanliness and health. The alleged site of the ancient capital of Ulysses is to the S. E. of the present town; immense masses of hewn stone indicate the spot, as does also the situation of several gateways; and occasionally a suburb flanking the walls is distinctly observable. Near this place several sepulchres have been discovered and opened; and numerous coins, bracelets, bronze figures, chains, and other articles of exquisite workmanship obtained. An entire body was found in one of these catacombs, having the head encircled by a gold coronet, the arms and legs embraced with solid bands of gold; and an emerald ring of great value was taken off one of the fingers of the great unknown.*

The cave wherein Ulysses was placed while sleeping, by the Phæacians, as mentioned by Homer, is situate at a small distance below the entrance of the harbour. On the isthmus near Aito, or the eagle mountain, are some ruins, or Cyclopean walls, said to be the relics of the castle of Ulysses; and Korax, and the famed fountain of Arethusa, is shewn in the recess of a declivity four miles from Vathi, and nearly covered with shrubs. Korax is a very beautiful white limestone cliff, 80 feet in perpendicular height, fronting the sea upon the S. E. coast, and somewhat resembling a bird with its wings extended.

The antiquarian and classic who wishes to know more of this romantic spot, will find his curiosity gratified in the ele-

* Kendrick, page 78.

gant and profound researches of Sir William Gell, and in the interesting descriptions of Assistant-Surgeon Goodison.

GEOLOGY.—Like the other Ionian isles, Ithaca is a mass of secondary limestone; the rock exists mostly in loose insulated masses on the surface, in some placed in gigantic heaps —in others formed into confused water courses, owing to the rapid descent of the mountain torrents. The soil, as may be expected, is exceedingly stony; and the declivities, where the vine and currant are cultivated, so great as to require terracing the earth, so as to resemble the benches of a theatre; and, in contrast with the surrounding bleakness, adding a beautiful picture to the landscape. The fruit produced is excellent, and the wine much superior in flavour to that of any of the other islands.

The orange, lemon and citron flourish, as does also the oak, which produces the velonia, or acorn, used by woollen dyers to retain the colour of their cloth.

The cultivation and products of the island is thus shewn to January, 1835:—

Crops, and Number of Acres in each Crop.											Number of Stock.			
Wheat.	Maize, Barley, &c.	Oats.	Currants.	Olive Oil.	Wine.	Cotton.	Flax.	Pulse.	Pasture.	Total No. of Acres in Crops.	No. of Acres of Land Uncultivated.	Horses.	Horned Cattle.	Sheep.	Goats.
49	263	5	190	212	756	1	97	38	1626	1611	3286	643	89	4653	8206

Nature and Quantity of Produce.								Prices of Produce.							
Wheat.	Maize, Barley, &c.	Oats.	Currants.	Wine.	Cotton.	Flax.	Pulse.	Wheat, per bushel.	Maize, &c. per bushel.	Oats, per bushel.	Currants, per 1000 lbs.	Wine, per barrel.	Cotton, per lb.	Flax, per lb.	Pulse, per bushel.
bush. 989	bush. 6979	bush. 286	lbs. 310060	brls. 9045	lbs. 100	lbs. 2708	bush. 874	s. d. 3 11½	s. d. 2 6	s. d. 1 8	s. d. 209 5	s. d. 8 2	d. 10	d. 4½	s. d. 5 1½

The *Climate* of Ithaca is mild; and although the temperature is liable to frequent variations, they are not of a very extensive range, seldom, according to Mr. Scott's account, who

has long resided in the island, exceeding three or four degrees of the thermometer in 24 hours. The average of the thermometer for four years, as taken by Mr. Scott at 10 A. M. and 3 P. M. daily, was as follows:—maximum 71, minimum 59, medium 65. The prevailing winds are southerly, which during summer, are very oppressive, and, as usual in the islands, attended with damp. A very refreshing westerly breeze, however, sets in about mid-day.

Rain generally begins to fall in heavy torrents about the month of September; sometimes for a month together the fall continues, but in general it is limited to three or four days at a time. June, July, and August, are commonly without a cloud.

Whatever rains fall in Ithaca are either at once carried off into the sea, or sink through the soil; they have never been observed to stagnate, or in any other visible way to affect the health of the inhabitants.

Earthquakes are frequent in Ithaca; they appear to be shocks of relation with other places, especially Santa Maura and Cephalonia; they are rarely productive of any serious damage.

That the climate is evinced by the age of the inhabitants, by a census taken in 1819, comprising a period of three years and a half, the mortality throughout the whole island was 1 in 26, viz., males 1 in 27, females 1 in 25. By another calculation it was found, that in the town and a neighbouring village, the deaths were 1 in 20, viz., males 1 in 22, females 1 in 18. In the district of Mavronia, or the out-villages, the mortality was only 1 in 40, viz., males 1 in 38, females 1 in 42; thus giving a double ratio of mortality in the town. It is very common to see persons of 80 in Ithaca; and 90, 95, and even 100, are not very rare ages.

No doubt many persons with weak constitutions die prematurely from the effects of poor living, hard labour, long fasts, and the religious penance to which they are subject, especially among the females; Mr. Scott, who lived several years in the island says, that when any one dies, the nearest female relation sets up a shrill scream, and every woman within

hearing of her, young or old, frail or strong, throws down her work, however pressing it may be, and starts for the scene of lamentation to join in the general howl, till the house is filled, who, when they are tired of crying and weeping for their nearest and dear relations last dead, and of sending embassies to them by the departing spirit of the deceased, retire to make room for a new set to offer their condolence in the same kind of way to the wife, mother, or whatever relation she may be, who, though already worn out, must again pull her hair and scream with every fresh party, to show the depth of her grief. This lasts, (after the first two or three days) at intervals of 24 hours at first, then a week, and at last a month, or a year. There is, therefore, always one of the howlings to be heard in some one of its stages, and none of the near relations must appear in public with a contented face for months, nor the mother or wife of the deceased be ever seen to smile again, at the risk of losing her fair reputation; so that, on the whole, it is a rare thing to meet with a lively air of contentment among the females of this island. The males do not enter into those noisy lamentations, but they must shut themselves up, buried in the filth of a month, without washing or shaving for at least that period. They, however, beguile the time by snuffing and smoking, to which most of them are absolute slaves; these, together with gambling, are, after a certain age, their only amusements.

The morals of these people are formed rather by superstition than by true religion. If one attends morning and evening prayers, observes Lent strictly, as well as other fast days, in a word, if he attends to the ceremonies of religion, he becomes a thorough good Christian, under the cloak of which he may be guilty of almost any depravity. It is seldom, however, that either great vices or great virtues are practised, for there is a general fear of being criticised, which influences these people more than might be expected among so uncivilized a race. Of low dirty tricks they are all capable, without exception, and they possess in a high degree that cunning which such propensities engender.

Every boy of whatever description goes to school, and is there taught to repeat his prayers, to sing hymns, and to read and write; the latter two, however, with so little care, that his progress is such as to be of little service to him in life. Indeed, the parents have so little controul over their sons, that very often, instead of being at school, they are gambling, or at some other mischief.

Females are taught nothing but to knit and sew, together with crossing themselves at certain hours, in which consists the basis of their religion, &c. This is a melancholy picture, and it is to be hoped our example and influence may in time be productive of some beneficial results.

The Ithacans are hardy sailors, and in proportion to the size of their isles, have a good deal of shipping. Several islands, or islets and rocks, lie in the channel between Ithaca and the continent forming part of the territories of the former, the chief of which is Kalamos, near the main land. The Telaboans were chiefly situate between Leucadia, or Santa Maura and the Grecian coast.

Ithaca sends one member to the senate at Corfu, and has its municipality for the management of local affairs.

PAXO.

Paxo, another of the Ionian islands, in lat. 39. 12. S., long. 20. 12. E., with an area of 27 square miles, and 12 in circumference, is of an oval shape, and composed of a single mountain, which probably, at one period, formed part of Corfu, from the southernmost point of which it is only seven miles distant. Port Gai affords good anchorage for a few vessels; but there is an inner harbour formed by an island almost in contact with the other, having a circular battery commanding the town, which is scattered in an irregular manner on the beach.

Paxo was first inhabited by Corcyreans (Homer, though well acquainted with all the islands, makes no mention of it) from Corfu; and, by an ancient tradition, St. Paul is said to have landed and preached the gospel, and banished all rep-

tiles from the island. To the southward of Paxo is Anti-Paxo, chiefly inhabited by fishermen, and, while the Venetians held sway, a notorious retreat for pirates, who levied severe contributions on all who fell within their power.

The products, &c. for 1835 are given at p. 373, in the table of the state of agriculture in the Ionian Islands for that year.

CERIGO AND CERIGOTTO.

Cerigo is the most southern island of the Septinsular Union, situate in lat. 36.6 N., long. 22.50 E., at the entrance of the Archipelago; to the N. of Canee, and S. of the Morea; five miles distant S. from Servi, and 14 E. S. E. of Cape Malio. The area is 116 square miles, the extreme length 20, the extreme breadth 12, and the circumference about 50. The island was anciently known (according to Pliny) by the name of Porphyris, from its possessing abundance of that beautiful marble. Ptolemy attributes the name of Cythera to Cytherus the son of Phœnix, who established himself in the island. According to some, Cerigo was first peopled by the Lacedemonians, who in the 8th year of the Peloponnesian war, were expelled by the Athenians under the command of Nicias. At a subsequent period it passed under the dominion of the Spartan republic, and served as a retreat to Cleomenes, who on the approach of Antigonus, king of Macedon, took refuge in the island. Ptolemy, king of Egypt, was afterwards lord of Cerigo; the Romans next came in possession, then the Venetians, and it followed the fate of the other islands of the Union. The relics extant denote the former greatness of the place; 'Pælo Castro' ruin, to the northward of the harbour, stands on the ancient town of Menelaus, whose faithless wife Helen caused the siege of Troy, and whose bath is still shewn. Six miles from the harbour of St. Nicholas, on the E., was situate the former city of Cythera; and a little further to the S. are situate some ruins, supposed to belong to a temple dedicated to Venus Cytheræa.

The island is oval shaped; at the N. is Cape Sparti, having a chapel on its extremity: to the S. is Cape Kapello, close to which is situate the harbour, and immediately above the chief town called Kapsali, and containing about 5000 inhabitants, whose tenements offer a marked contrast to the other islanders', being mostly of wood, and ill constructed; indeed, the Cerigottians are far less advanced in civilization than the other Ionians. The harbour is small; and as vessels are sometimes windbound for several months off Cerigo, I understand that Sir Howard Douglas has consulted Mr. Rennie as to the formation of a safety port for vessels at a place which the celebrated Sinan Cigale, the Turkish admiral, not inaptly termed the lantern of the Archipelago.

The island is scantily covered with soil, and subject to violent winds which destroy the vineyards and plantations—so that it is very partially cultivated. The oil is of excellent quality, and brings a good price; the inhabitants, however, are obliged to resort chiefly to fishing for their support.

The products, &c. for 1835 will be found at p. 373 ante.

Four miles to the S. of the harbour is an insulated rock, called '*L'Ova*, or the *Egg*, of the form of a sugar loaf, on which is found a shell-fish, partaking strongly of conchilia, which produces a beautiful red colour, which it is supposed yielded the famous Tyrian dye. Two miles E. of Cape Kapello, are two rocks called '*Kuphonisis*,' or baskets, and to the E. of Cerigo is situated the small island of Cerigotto, formerly known under the appellation of Ægilia, and now chiefly inhabited by Greeks and Turks, but subject to Corfu, as are also several other minor isles, such as Strophades, Maganissa, Panorno, &c. Strophades, about 20 miles S.E. from Zante, is about five miles in circumference, and on its E. coast is situate the celebrated convent of the Redeemer, built of white freestone, resembling marble 90 feet high, divided into four parts, each protected by a tower. The access is only by means of a door leading to the vaults, which is closed up immediately on an alarm being given, when the monks are drawn up by means of baskets, after the manner

of the Copt monasteries in Egypt. The establishment consists of about 60 mothers, with a grand and sub-prior, &c. who are supported by a revenue derived from landed possessions in Greece and Russia. There are several noblemen and well educated gentlemen among the brothers of the order, who have a good library and every comfort that a seclusion from the world will admit of. This magnificent convent was erected by Prince Tocchis, but owed its first celebrity to San Dionisius, who, after residing in Strophades several years, accepted the bishoprick of Egina, but finally died at Zante in 1624. Several Zantiots reside on the islands.

GENERAL VIEW OF THE IONIAN ISLANDS.

The importance of the septinsular islands to England have reference principally to their geographical position, by which they are admirably adapted for protecting our trade in the eastern parts of Europe, and of extending our commerce as soon as Greece becomes more settled and civilized.

It would be well if trial by jury were introduced into the islands, and a free press promoted and I would suggest that the wines *bonâ fide* prepared in the Ionian isles be admitted into England on the same footing as those of the Cape of Good Hope, or any other colony. There can be no doubt that we have effected some good in elevating the character of the Ionians; by a perseverance in our present judicious system we shall be laying a permanent foundation for the extension of the British name and commerce throughout Eastern Europe. Russia was extremely anxious to have been the protector of the Septinsular Union—let this be a warning to us as to their political value and an inducement to conciliate the good opinion and affection of the Ionians by a wise and generous policy.

For Montgomery Martin's History of the British Colonies Vol. V. – EUROPE.

CHAPTER VIII.

THE NORMAN ISLES.

EMBRACING GUERNSEY, JERSEY, ALDERNEY, SERK, HERM, &c.

THEIR LOCALITY, HISTORY, PHYSICAL ASPECT, GEOLOGY, POPULATION, PRODUCTIONS, COMMERCE, GOVERNMENT, LAWS, &c. &c.

THE Norman or Channel Isles form a group of large and small islets, situate near the coast of France in the gulf or bay of St. Michaels, which sweeps from Cape de la Hogue in Normandy, to Cape de Frehelle in Britanny; enjoying, as they do, their own laws and government, though, as forming a portion of the British Empire unrepresented in the Imperial Parliament, they necessarily come within the range of possessions treated of in this work;—a brief account is, however, all that will be requisite, as from their proximity to the British shores, the cheapness of living therein, their famed salubrity and peaceful scenery, they form an attractive sojourn for tourists during the summer season. To begin with—

GUERNSEY—

Which is situate in 49.33. N. lat. and 2.40. W. long. from the meridian of London. It is about 34 miles in circumference, 9 miles in length, six in breadth, and with an area of 30 square miles. The island is 13½ miles N.W. of Jersey; 7 W. of Serk; 15 S.W. and by S. of Alderney; 60 N.N.W. of St. Malo; 66 N.W. by N. of Cancalle; 57 N.W. ½ N. of Granville; 36 W.N.W. of Carteret or Porte Bail; 28½ W. by S. ½ S. of Diellette; 26 W.S.W. of Cape la Hogue; and 36 W. by S. of Cherbourg. It bears E.S.E. ¼ E. from the Land's End, distant 135 miles; E.S.E. ½ E. from the Lizard, 114 miles; E.S.E. from Falmouth, 111 miles; S.E. from Plymouth, 71 miles; S.E. from the Start Point, 50 miles; S. from Wey-

mouth, 60 miles; S. from Portland, 51 miles; S. by W. ½ W. from Poole, 69 miles; S.W. by S. from the Needles, 75 miles; S.W. from Portsmouth, 94 miles; S.W. by S. from Southampton, 108 miles.

HISTORY.—Guernsey has long been noted in history, for Augustus is said to have sent a governor thither 17 years before the birth of our Saviour.*

In the year 887, when an immense fleet of Norman pirates sailed up the Seine, and filled the kingdom of France with terror, Charles Le Gros made a treaty with them, by which he assigned over to their dominion the province of Neustria, in which they settled, and called it Normandy. Charles the Simple, in the year 912, confirmed this grant, and gave to Rollo, the chief of the invaders of his country, his daughter in marriage, to bind him to his interest. From this period, Guernsey, as well as the neighbouring islands, were regarded as belonging to the dukes of Normandy. Rolla died in 917, greatly revered and regretted; and was succeeded by his son William, the second duke of Normandy, who was waylaid and massacred in 942, when at war with Arnoul, the Earl of Flanders. In the reign of his successor, Richard the First, the monastery of the Vale, in Guernsey, was founded, by some fugitive ecclesiastics, who were displeased by his curtailment of their revenues, in the year 962. This was the commencement of the first colony in the island of Guernsey.

Richard the Second, surnamed Le Bon, succeeded his father in 996; he died in 1026, and his son, Richard the Third, took possession of his dignity, he expired suddenly, as it is supposed, by poison, in 1028; and was succeeded by his brother Robert, who was one of the first sovereigns who became infected with the mania of the crusades. He determined to go in person to the Holy Land, on this pious warfare. In order to ensure success, he made large grants of land in the island, to different ecclesiastics, who erected on them various monasteries and priories. Having, in an assem-

* I am indebted for many particulars in this chapter to the Almanacs and Guides published in the islands.

bly of his nobles, procured the recognition of his illegitimate son, William, then a youth of ten years of age, as his successor, he set out on this wild expedition, from which he never returned. He died in 1035.

After many difficulties, William, generally termed the Conqueror, succeeded his father to his ducal sovereignty, and on making the conquest of England, the Norman isles became an appendage to the British crown, to which they continue united to this day. This monarch died in Normandy, in 1087. William the Second, the eighth duke of Normandy, succeeded his father in 1100. Henry the First took the ducal crown, in connexion with that of England; Stephen succeeded him in 1135; Henry the Second in 1154; Richard the First in 1189; and then John, in 1199, (who was the thirteenth and last duke of Normandy) took the sovereignty; and though his possessions on the continent cast off his dominion, these isles retained their allegiance. Though twice attacked, during his reign, by the French, the inhabitants repulsed them; and John was so much alarmed, lest he should be dispossessed of the only part of his duchy which remained faithful to him, that he hastened to the assistance of the islanders: he examined and repaired all their fortifications, and appointed keepers of the ports and harbours, to give first notice of any invading foe. He enacted a code of laws, which has been called the Constitution of King John, and the Magna Charta of the Norman Isles.

In the reign of Edward the First, the French monarch, having gained the whole of Normandy by treaty, in the year 1298, regarded the adjacent isles with an envious eye. He therefore invaded them, and took Castle Cornet; but his troops were ultimately repulsed with great loss. Edward provided for the widows and orphans of his brave subjects who fell in the contest, and rewarded those who had signalised themselves by their valour; he also granted to the islands the use of a public seal; he likewise gave authority for raising a small duty on all vessels coming to the island, for the

erection of a pier, though the work was not begun till the reign of Elizabeth.

In the reign of Edward the Second, the English courts, regardless of the constitution of the Norman islands, sent to them judges of assize. Many of the inhabitants, to their manifold disadvantage, who had differences, were summoned to appear at Westminster. Edward the Third, however, on a petition being presented to him, relieved the isles from this hardship and expense.

In the twelfth year of this monarch's reign, the French invaded Britain; they took and plundered Southampton; and Guernsey and Jersey were treated in a similar way. Both of these islands were taken, after a brave resistance. Guernsey continued in the hands of the enemy for some time; but a fleet sent from England recaptured it.

It is affirmed, that a person named Ivans, entrusted with command of the French fleet, took Guernsey, after a considerable opposition, in which 400 of the islanders were slain: it was, however, again rescued from the dominion of the foe, by 80 ships from England; but 500 men, with the governor, Ralph Holland, perished in the conflict. There is a spot of ground in the New Town, which is called *La Bataille*, on which, it is said one of these bloody conflicts took place. The parliament of England presented a memorial to the king, on the necessity of keeping up a fleet at sea, for the protection of his dominions, which was accordingly done. Edward also granted a charter to Guernsey: the original document is lost, but the substance of it is incorporated in that of Henry the Sixth. Richard the Second, likewise the successor of Edward, granted a charter to the Norman isles, in the eighteenth year of his reign, 1394, in which, for their loyalty and good behaviour, he enlarged the privileges of the inhabitants. Queen Margaret, in her contests for empire, sought the aid of Peter de Brèe, grand senechal of Normandy: she promised him, as a recompense, the perpetual sovereignty of the Norman isles. He accordingly raised a body of 2,000 men, for the

succour of her cause, in England. At the same time, he sent an officer named Surdeval, with a suitable force, to take possession of Jersey. Mount Orgueil castle was given up to them, by its commandant, who was devoted to the interests of the queen. On the success of the English expedition, Peter de Brèze came himself to Jersey, and assumed the title of Lord of the islands of Guernsey, Jersey, and the other islands adjoining. He could not, however, reduce more than one half of the island to his control, though he employed efforts of every kind during six years; Philip de Carteret, seigneur de St. Ouen, secured Gronez castle, and carried on a perpetual warfare against the invaders. Edward the Fourth closed this contest, by sending a squadron of ships, under the command of Sir Richard Harliston who expelled the enemy and was rewarded with the government of the island. Many of the inhabitants of Guernsey engaged in the expedition; and, since this period, the laurel has been taken as a crest to the arms of the island. Edward, in the fifth year of his reign, granted a charter to Guernsey, which confirmed the liberties granted to it by former documents of this kind. Richard the Third, also, in the first year of his usurpation, gave a similar indulgence to the inhabitants.

Henry the Eighth gave four charters to the island of Guernsey. In the reign of Edward the Sixth, the French monarch sent one Strozzi, with a fleet, and 2,000 men to reduce the Norman isles: Captain William Winter, however, with an English fleet, and about 800 men, attacked the forces of the enemy with so much skill and bravery, that they were entirely defeated, leaving many of their vessels in the hands of the English, after having lost about 1,000 men.

Edward the Sixth granted, under the grand seal, liberty to export certain articles of provision from Southampton, Poole, Lyme, Weymouth, Topsham, Dartmouth, and Plymouth, for the use of Guernsey and Castle Cornet. Queen Mary also granted two charters to this island.

Queen Elizabeth ordered all the fortifications of the Norman isles to be repaired and strengthened; she also granted

several charters to Guernsey. In her majesty's reign, the pier, which had been projected in the time of Edward the Sixth, was commenced, and in 1563 the Queen founded a free grammar school in Guernsey, for boys natives of the island: the charity was endowed with certain lands, which produced about 300*l.* per annum, the governor having the appointment of the master.

James the First gave a charter to Guernsey; he sent commissioners to Guernsey and Jersey to reform and amend the laws, the misconstruction of which had caused much dispute. The decisions of these persons are still a part of the constitution of this portion of his majesty's dominions.

Charles the First, as the French threatened an invasion of these islands, sent the Earl of Danby, the governor of Jersey, with reinforcements and supplies, which, happily, were not needed, as the enemy relinquished their hostile design. Dr. Heylin, who made a survey of these islands, accompanied the Earl, as his chaplain.

It is said, that Lord Jermyn had engaged to deliver up both Guernsey and Jersey to the King of France, in 1646, for a reward of 200,000 pistols, and a dukedom; but the plot was defeated.

During the troubles, in the reign of Charles the First, the islanders warmly espoused the cause of the monarch, and were certainly among his most determined, zealous, and efficient supporters. They fitted out a number of cruisers, which greatly annoyed the English commerce: on which account a formidable force was sent out against them by the commonwealth. Guernsey was obliged, after a very vigorous resistance, to submit to the government of the enemies of Charles.

This was likewise the case with Jersey. It is affirmed that, during the protectorate, the established religion was trampled under foot; that the soldiery turned the churches into guard houses and stables; that compositions for estates were exacted, and every kind of oppression licensed without restraint.

The island had hardly got peacefully settled, after this

troublesome period, before it was in danger, from a plot of the French to surprise it, in the year 1665, from which it was happily delivered by the lady of Marshal Turenne, a zealous protestant and a resident in Guernsey. She gave secret information of the designs, to the reverend Daniel Brevint, a Jersey divine, who was afterwards prebendary of Durham, and the dean of Lincoln. In consequence of this, Sir Thomas Morgan was sent over with reinforcements, and the enemy relinquished their purpose.

Charles the Second, in 1669, confirmed the charter which his father had given to the island.

James the Second, wishing to introduce the catholic religion into Guernsey, sent over some catholic soldiers, with a priest to celebrate the mass. A chapel was built for their use; a Roman catholic gentleman was also made governor; but all his plans were frustrated by the succession of William and Mary to the crown of England. As soon as this information reached the island, a scheme, which was very successful, was planned, to disarm the catholic soldiers and to seize on the castle. During the reign of William, as England was at war with France, the Norman isles were in a state of constant agitation; but the distinguished naval victory off La Hague, in 1692, dissipated the fears of the inhabitants. The privateers of Guernsey, during the reign of King William and Queen Anne, captured at least 1,500 prizes.

During the last war several efforts were made to seize these islands—(see Jersey) but without effect, and the loyalty and bravery of the inhabitants contributed materially to their protection.

Physical Aspect.—The scenery of Guernsey is of a tranquil pastoral character; there is but little timber, and it is not lofty; but from the minute subdivision of land, and its careful culture, the face of the island is in spring entirely clothed in the richest verdure. The scenery around several of the bays is extremely pleasing, especially Ferman's bay, Petit Bo, Moulin, Huet, &c. St. Peter's Port is the only town in the island,—the streets are narrow, and built of blue

granite, or granitel, covered with slates or pantiles. In the New Town the houses and streets are superior, and the English style of architecture is adopted. The harbour is small but secure, and well defended against an enemy by Castle Cornet, an irregular pentagonal fortress, erected on a solid rock, in the roadstead of St. Peter's Port, about 700 yards from the shore, and so fortified by nature and art, as to render it almost impregnable. Some historians have attributed its first erection to the Romans; but there are neither records nor traces left to justify so remote an origin. During the contest between Stephen and Henry the Second, Raoul de Valmont was appointed governor of Guernsey, and made the castle his residence, and is supposed to have added much to the present building. Bastions, demi-bastions, and curtains, have been from time to time erected; there are bomb-proof apartments for more than 300 men, furnaces for heating shot, &c. and capacious magazines.

The haven and town is further defended by Fort George, a regular fortification on the improved construction of the square, with outworks, possessing every requisite for defence, and considered so strong as not to be reducible by any attack, however formidable the force may be. The fort was commenced in the year 1782, and finished, under the auspices of the lieutenant-governor Sir John Doyle, in the year 1812. The whole construction and its dependencies cost government in building upwards of 200,000*l.*; and, when fully manned, it can accommodate nearly 3,000 men. Thirty-four pieces of cannon, one carronade, and four mortars, are mounted on its bastions and curtains, which are strongly supported by several batteries of heavy metal.

Geology and Soil.—Dr. Mac Culloch, a gentleman of scientific attainments, and a native of Guernsey, has attentively examined the structure of his natal home, which appears to be almost entirely of granite formation. The southern divis[illegible] consists entirely of gneiss, and the rocks which form t[illegible]thern part, exhibit various kinds of granite, or g[illegible]

The rock on which Castle Cornet is built is a gneiss, often approaching so near to granite as to render its place in a nomenclature doubtful. It is every where crossed and intersected by veins of quartz, of trap, and of feldspar, curved and mixed in various ways, but tending, on the whole, to the N. or N. E. More rarely, there are found in it veins of brick-red and bright green felspar, and pebbles of the same substance, or, with hornblende imbedded, are found on the beach, as well as coarse agates, passing into quartz and hornstone.

Proceeding from the castle southwards, gneiss is found to constitute the cliffs on the E. side, often in a state of decomposition, and covered with a great depth of debris. These strata, which extend all along the S. coast to Rocquaine bay, seem to tend from N.E. to S.W. and have various inclinations, but most generally 10 or 15 degrees dipping to the S. On the southern side of the island they are intersected by veins of white flesh-coloured and red felspar, of various breadths. In some places the felspar veins pass into granite; veins of quartz and veins of granitel, consisting of quartz and felspar, also traverse it. A few veins of trap are also found intersecting it at Rocquaine, which are occasionally superseded by trap porphyry, or by the same substance, containing minute grains of quartz. In this track there are wrought three or four quarries of black granitel, consisting of hornblende and quartz, and very hard. The constitution of this stone varies much through the extent which it traverses. In some places it is a true granite; in others the mica disappears; in others again, the latter ingredient becomes so abundant that the stone passes into micaceous schistus. Occasionally also, hornblende enters into its composition, as has been noticed by others; when this is the case, it sometimes loses the foliated structure, and passes into sienite. Sometimes all the other ingredients are excluded and felspar alone remains. There may also be traced gradations into mere quartz. There are also further varieties, consisting of wavy mixtures of quartz and hornblende only: this stone has a considerable tendency to decomposition, the felspar and mica being both very ferruginous. It is consequently

found in all states, from that of a friable rock to a gravelly clay; and, finally, to a perfect soil, constituting the gravelly or sandy loam which predominates throughout the island. No where is it more easy to remark the process by which, in nature, rocks are converted into earth; and, as in this case, by the action of an oxyde of iron. Nests of yellow mica, which seem to have arisen from the decomposed rocks, are found in many places: the stone is used for rough masonry.

A ledge of rocks, called the Hanois, extend from the westernmost points of the island, and, from its apparent geographical continuity, is probably of the same structure. Against this point the whole strength of the western ocean is directed and it is from hence that a large ridge of rounded masses of stone has been rolled, so as to form a natural barrier near Rocquaine.

In quitting the elevated parts of the island, and with it the southern shores, the gneiss disappears, and its place is supplied by other granitic formations. Besides the trap and trap porphyry, at Rocquaine, there are masses of micaceous schist, having the appearance of veins; and a stratum of argillaceous schist may also be observed at the lower parts of the bay, incumbent on the granitic foundation.

At l'Erée and Lihou, the rocks are composed of quartz and felspar, the foliated textures having disappeared. A granitel is thus formed, which, in some places, receiving an addition of hornblende passes into sienite: this is traversed, here and there, by veins of the same red and green felspar which are found at Castle Cornet. The same highly coloured felspars are occasionally intermixed, so as to form a constituent part of the granite, which thus becomes exceedingly beautiful.

At Grand Rocque are masses of sienite, which are quarried to make building stones. It is the only rock of this nature in the island, and its produce is fully equal in beauty to that of the celebrated quarries of Mont Mado, in Jersey, although it cannot be raised in such large masses. The felspar is the predominant ingredient, and it is either white or flesh-coloured. It is traversed by veins of a similarly constituted

stone, but more minutely compacted, and of a brick-red colour. In some places, indeed, the veins seem to consist of a felspar basis, with grains of quartz and horneblende imbedded, approaching in its nature to a petunse porphyry. It is here an universal rule, that when the granites are traversed by veins of similar nature, the vein is the most compact of the two. As the horneblende is sometimes wanting in these stones, and as mica is sometimes present, we meet with many other granitic varieties. Dr. Mac Culloch observed, in one place, lumps of argillaceous porphyry stuck in granite.

The predominant rock, towards the bay of St. Sampson, is a grey or black granitel, consisting of quartz and hornblende, mixed in various proportions. Detached masses of this rock are also found in the higher grounds, as well as among the gneiss of the southern coast. The hornblende, in some places, predominates, so as to give a sort of a hornblende porphyry; and, in others, every other ingredient is excluded, and a hornblende rock alone remains. He also observed some specimens traversed by a derivative rock of the same composition, interspersed with minute grains of pyrites, the only trace of the kind which is found in this island.

This stone is very hard and sonorous, and admirably adapted for building, as it easily breaks into squared masses before the hammer. It is more particularly fitted for paving, from its extreme hardness and toughness; and for that purpose it is exported, in large quantities, to London and other parts of England, as Guernsey, or St. Sampson's stone.

There is no appearance of limestone in the island, yet the soil which is the result of decomposed gneiss is of great fertility.

Climate.—The winters are so mild, that an intense degree of frost is unknown; and snow rarely lies for many hours. Very high westerly winds are often experienced; and though the sun is very powerful in summer, his rays are so tempered by sea breezes, that the heat is never oppressive.

Population.—The earliest census I can obtain thus shews the population of Guernsey in 1615:—

Parishes.	Houses.	Men.	Musquets.	Arquebuses.	Non-armed.
St. Pierre Port....	347	587	44	316	227
St. Samson	77	94	18	51	25
Le Valle	156	187	28	96	63
Le Catel	166	207	27	116	64
St. Sauvieur	138	188	25	87	76
St. Pierre du Bois	126	173	22	84	67
Torteval	55	65	7	32	26
La Foret	72	100	6	59	35
St. Martin.....	151	261	36	128	97
St. André	67	94	12	58	24
Total..	1,355	1,956	225	1,027	704

In 1727 the inhabitants amounted to 10,500; of which number the town, or the parish of St. Pierre Port had 4,500. In 1821, the town, 11,173; the country, 9,129; total, 20,302. Serk, 488; Herm, 28; Jethou, 9; Aurigny,* 1,151, total, 21,978. Jersey, (St. Helier, 10,118) 28,600; grand total, 50,578.

The following shews the population of Guernsey and its dependent isles in 1831:—

	Houses.	Families.	Men.	Women.	Total.
St. Samson	183	187	549	560	1109
Le Valle	231	277	717	693	1410
Le Catel	287	351	938	999	1937
St. Sauvieur	201	225	517	556	1073
St. Pierre	218	264	575	616	1191
Torteval	72	78	200	178	378
La Foret	117	145	355	340	695
St. Martin..	270	366	796	856	1652
St. André	169	196	491	520	1011
	1748	2089	5138	5318	10456
La Ville	1728	2864	5969	7924	13893
Guernsey, total ..	3476	4953	11107	13242	24349
Serk	87	108	261	282	543
Herm	22	24	132	45	177
Jethou	2	2	6	8	14
	3587	5087	11506	13577	25083
Aurigny and Caskets	217	246	477	568	1045
	3804	5383	11983	14145	26128

The character of the islanders is marked by a great deal of shrewdness; as to physical courage, they have given repeated instances of their bravery; and wherever they have been employed, at home or abroad, in public capacities, they have run the fair race of competition with their English, Irish, or Scotch brethren. These is a mixture of the French and English peculiarities in many of both the Jersey and

* Alderney.

Guernsey people, which is productive of good; the fiery irascible blood of Gaul is tempered with a due proportion of the phlegm of Albion, and the result is a determined, staid, but active individual, capable of the highest efforts to which his duties may call him. In honesty and truth the islanders are not surpassed. The language of the people is Norman French, but English is now becoming very general, and in St. Peter's Port it is the prevailing dialect.

Religion.—Druidism originally prevailed in the island, and some remains of druidical ruins exist. Christianity was introduced about A. D. 520, when Childebert, king of France, gave Sampson, archbishop of St. David's, the Norman Isles for a bishopric. Several monasteries were subsequently founded; and the monks were said to be so exemplary in their conduct that Guernsey was designated in the Pope's bulls, the *holy* island.

Henry the Eighth seized the great tithes, and in the reign of Edward the Sixth, the liturgy was translated into French, and used in all the churches in Guernsey; but when Mary came to the throne popery was again established. In July, 1556, the dean, Jacques Amy, condemned a widow and her two daughters for heresy; one of them, who had married a protestant minister, was delivered of a child in the flames, which was rescued by one of the spectators of that horrid spectacle; but the bailiff ordered the babe to be again thrown into the fire, and it perished with its mother.

The presbyterian discipline, established by Calvin at Geneva, was introduced partly by Elizabeth's sanction, and by the unanimous support of the assembly of the states, in 1576. James the First appears to have acquiesced in this arrangement.

Charles the First, through the intercession of archbishop Laud, appropriated an estate in London, and one in Buckinghamshire, to endow fellowships in the colleges of Exeter, Jesus, and Pembroke, in Oxford, for educating clergymen for the instruction of the inhabitants of Guernsey and Jersey. To these, bishop Morley added five scholarships in Pembroke college.

Charles the Second appointed a dean to superintend, under the bishop of Winchester's directions, the ecclesiastical affairs of Guernsey. Thus, the liturgy was again introduced; but, at times, with so much opposition, that in 1755 the dean found it necessary to apply for the aid of the civil magistracy to enforce it.

The dean has the power of giving licenses for solemnizing matrimony in private; and as the expense is not considerable, marriages are sometimes performed at home.

The rector has the tenth of all apples, pears, cider, honey, calves, colts, pigs, sheep, and geese; but no tithe is payable on hay, clover, lucerne, potatoes, parsnips, cabbage, or other vegetables.

All forms of religion meet with perfect toleration, and there are a good number of dissenting, and one or two Roman Catholic, chapels in the island.

The following dates will shew the antiquity of the respective churches throughout the Island:—

St. Sampson, A. D. 1111; the Vale, 1117; Torteval, 1130; rebuilt, 1818; St. Saviour, 1154; the Forest, 1163; St. Peter-in-the-Wood, 1167; St. Martin, 1199; the Catel, 1208; St. Andrew, 1284; St. Peter-Port, 1312; St. James, 1818.

EDUCATION is in full play: there is a college founded by Elizabeth in 1563, the institution being now carried on in a classic-looking castellated granite building, which is one of the principal ornaments of the island. There are numerous public and private schools, elementary and secondary.

Newspapers there are four—two in English and two in French. There is no stamp duty—no excise on paper—no advertisement tax. The charge for the French weekly papers is 4*s.* *per annum!* and for English (twice-a-week) papers, 10*s.* and 16*s.* per annum.

LAWS AND COURTS.—Soon after the establishment of the French monarchy, the Norman Isles were placed under the direction of a count. Count Loyescon was governor in the reigns of Clotaire and Cherebert, about the year 560; at that time, and long afterwards, they were regulated according to the feudal system. King John, by the constitution which he

accorded, appointed a royal court, which was empowered to judge of all causes arising in the island. Appeals were to be made from the feudal courts to this new institution; which, by its encroachments, soon deprived the former of most of their powers.

The royal court consists of a bailiff nominated by the king, and 12 jurats chosen by the members of the states, the representatives of the people, all serving for life, unless discharged by the king. These officers administer justice three times a week in term time; and once a week out of term, or oftener if required. There are three terms in the year: the first begins the first Monday after January the fifteenth; the second, the first Monday after Easter; and the third, the first Monday after September the twenty-ninth; each continues six weeks. They have the power of life or death, except in cases of treason, coining, or actual assault upon the bailiff, in which a direct application must be made to his majesty's government. The 16 military tenants are obliged to attend the opening of the terms: this service, with a fine of 4*s.* 3*d.* when the property is changed by death or sale, is all the charge to which they are now subject. They were formerly members of the states, but have now lost the privilege. The voice of the majority of the jurats decides every case; they are not obliged to unanimity, as in England. If any one be aggrieved by a decision, he may appeal to the king and council. This is the final remedy for every complaint; but in this case it is often extremely tedious and expensive to obtain justice. Until the time of James the First, justices or commissioners were sent annually, or triennially, to prevent the necessity of such applications. The king's writ, or process, from the courts of Westminster, are *not* valid in this island; neither are English acts of parliament binding here, unless particularly named, or enforced by his majesty's order in council.

All the proceedings of the courts are in French, which in many cases, to the English, is disadvantageous.

GOVERNMENT.—Edward the First issued an order in 1324,

which first separated the civil from the military authorities. De Grandison, who was then governor, and his successors, appointed the bailiffs in Guernsey and Jersey; in the latter island till the reign of Henry the Seventh, and in the former till the reign of Charles the Second: the bailiffs have, since this time, patents under the great seal of England.

Both the governor and the lieutenant-governor are appointed by the crown; but the latter resides in the island, and discharges the duty of the office. The late lieutenant-governor, Sir John Doyle, conferred a lasting benefit on the island, by the great military roads which, after many difficulties, he has formed, from the town and citadel to the different bays and most vulnerable points.

What are called the states of the island are composed of the following officers: the bailiff, 12 jurats, the procureur of the royal court, the rectors of the 10 parishes, the 2 constables, and the douzainiers of each parish; making a total of 174 members. The deliberative states, however, are selected from these, and consist of the bailiff, 12 jurats, the procureur, the clergy, and one voice from each of the 10 parishes; making thirty-two in the whole. The governor, or his lieutenant, has no vote, only a deliberate voice in the meetings of the states, which are held in the royal court house, and the bailiff presides as speaker.

The principal business of what is termed the states of election, is the nomination of jurats and appointment of the sheriff, in which every individual member is entitled to suffrage; but the raising of money to defray public expenses, as occasion requires, is voted by what is called the states of deliberation; yet this assembly has not the absolute power of creating or imposing new subsidies or taxes but upon extraordinary emergencies, when the safety and immediate defence of the island absolutely requires it: a higher authority is necessary, and application must be made to the king for his royal permission to levy what may be judged sufficient for the purposes proposed.

Whenever the king's service, or the exigence of the

island, requires the assembling of the states of deliberation, the bailiff, with the consent of the governor, and in his absence of the lieutenant-governor, or the commander-in-chief for the time being, hath a right to fix a day for the convention of the states, and to insert in the writs to be issued for their convention, the matters to be deliberated upon, without the concurrence of the jurats, or any of them; but by usage long observed, the bailiff, previous to the issuing such writs, communicates to the jurats, in the royal court, his intention of convening the states, and informs them of the day he proposes for their meeting, and the matters which will be contained in such writs for their deliberation. These writs are signed by the bailiff, and directed to the constables only, who communicate the same to the rectors to take the sense of the douzaine of their respective parishes upon the subjects specially set forth in such writ, and come prepared to give their voice accordingly; for, excepting in the election of magistrates, as before noticed, the douzainiers and constables do not attend individually, but give their assent or dissent collectively in each parish. In order to make this system more clear, the members composing the states of election, are—

The bailiff, 12 jurats, and attorney-general . . .	15
The 8 rectors of the 10 parishes (the Vale and St. Sampson's, the Forest and Torteval, being united) . .	8
The 2 constables in each parish	20
The 12 douzainiers in each, excepting the town parish, St. Peter's Port, wherein there are 20, and the Vale having 16, making together	132
Total . .	175

The states of deliberation consist of:—

The bailiff, 12 jurats, and attorney-general . . .	14
The 8 rectors of the 10 parishes	8
The united voice of the constables and douzainiers of each parish	10
Total . .	32

At the assembly of the states of deliberation, a committee is appointed for the auditing of all public accounts of receipts and disbursements; public works for the general benefit of the island are proposed, maturely considered and ordered, and deputies appointed to carry over such addresses and memorials to his majesty and the privy council, as may be deemed necessary or expedient for the general welfare of the island. In the charters given to these islands, at various times, it is declared that the natives shall be regarded as possessing all the privileges of a British subject.

LAWS.—The island is governed by a singular mixture of Norman and English laws. Farms are sold, not for a certain sum of money, as in England, but for so many quarters of wheat, to be paid annually: the relations of the proprietor may, within a year after the first agreement, claim the property, and may have it on paying the amount for which it has been parted with. The following are some of the prominent local customs:—

Renunciation and Cession.—A person who, from losses in trade, or other unavoidable calamity, finds himself insolvent, may avail himself of the privilege of cession; which is done by appearing in open court, declaring his renunciation of all his property, and swearing that he will deliver all his moveables (his clothes, bed, and arms excepted) to and for the benefit of his creditors; and, that if providence should enable him hereafter to pay his just debts, he will do so. Formerly, a person thus renouncing, wore a green cap, and divested himself of a girdle; but this humiliating exposure has been discontinued for some years.

Saisie.—This is a remedy granted to a creditor, when his debtor becomes insolvent.

There are three kinds of saisie. The saisie is called *mobilière,* when, before the renunciation, the creditor has obtained an act of the court, and takes possession of the debtor's estate, the revenue of which he applies towards the liquidating of his own claim, the debtor still retaining the property of the estate.

The *saisie* is *héréditale* when the debtor has renounced, or, by process of law, been forced to give up his estate in favour of his creditors, of which the said *saisie* becomes administrator, without prejudice to his own personal claims. The *saisie* becomes *propriétaire* when he who held the *saisie mobilière* or *héréditale* has, by some act which is deemed binding, made it his own; or when, in the regular process, one of the creditors has accepted the *saisie*. In either case, the *saisie propriétaire* is in place of the original debtor, and answerable for all the debts which can be proved.

Retraites.—The origin of this custom seems to have been the Mosaic law: when any person alienates his inheritance by sale or rent, if any part of the consideration for such assignment is paid, or agreed to be paid in money, the next of kindred, and if he or she refuses, or neglects to claim his or her right, the next in rotation, and in like manner, to the seventh degree of consanguinity, may at any time do so until the purchaser is appropriated by the Court, at one of the fixed days regularly held for such purposes, or within one year, if no such appropriation has taken place, upon payment of the sum *bonâ fide* paid upon the purchase.

Descent of real and personal estate.—Real estate cannot be disposed of by will, but must descend to the heirs at law; and in default of such, to the king, or lord of the manor. A father cannot, by will, give an advantage to one child over another, even in reference to his personal property; a daughter marrying in the lifetime of her father, has no claim to share his personal property, unless by special engagement in the marriage contract, or by bequeathment.

Though a father cannot bequeath to one child more than to another, he can leave the whole of his property to strangers. A husband acquires no permanent right in his wife's estate; if she leaves issue he enjoys the property for life; but should she die without having had a child born alive, the estate, immediately on her death, reverts to her heirs at law, in the same manner as if she had never been married.

Real Estate does not, as in England, descend to the heir

at law, but all the brothers are joint heirs, and share the estate between them; however many daughters there are, they have but one-third of the estate among them. The eldest son has some little advantage over his brothers; he is allowed to take the house and a certain portion of the land, because he has to pay the corn rents; he chooses what field he pleases; the second son, and then the third son acts in like manner. Hence has arisen the great division of property in the island.

If parents have lived for years openly unmarried, and afterwards marry, all the children are considered as legitimate as if born in wedlock, and equally entitled to inheritance.

There are no poor laws, and no paupers requiring relief.

The King's Revenue consists of the great tithes of all corn, grain and flax, the growth of the island, and in some parts the champart is also levied; 1st, the 10th sheaf for tithe, and the 11th for champart, when the fief belongs to the crown; champart implies that part reserved by the lords of the manors and fiefs, by way of chief rent, which are generally let out or farmed, at certain rates, by private individuals.

The chief rents, and rents paid in corn and money, with the customs, anchorage, tonnage on vessels, wrecks at sea, amercements of court, forfeitures in estates, goods, chattels, &c., constitute the chief revenues of the crown in the island of Guernsey. The manner in which the rates are levied was explained to me by a fine old Guernsey gentleman, who was lately in London as the representative of his fellow citizens, when their immunities were attacked in reference to the intended measure of prohibiting the channel island corn from coming into the English market: I allude to Daniel De Lisle Brock, the high bailiff of the island.

Tax-payers in the parish of the Town, or St. Peter Port, in the Island of Guernsey, with the amount at which they are rated:—

Number of Tax-payers.	Quartiers.	Number of Quartiers.	Amount in £. sterling, reckoning the Quartier at £20.
472, rated under	100,	pay on 19,300 quartiers,	or 386,000
114,	150,	17,100	342,000
74,	250,	18,500	370,000
37,	350,	12,950	259,000
19,	450,	8,650	173,000
716, rated under	500,	pay on 76,500 quars.	or 1,530,000
59,	1,000,		799,000
20, from 1,000 to	5,250,		698,000
795 rate-payers pay on	. .	151,350 quars.	or 3,027,000

In 1832, the tax of $7\frac{1}{8}d.$ was raised on £150,805.
Difference from the calculation 545 quartiers, or not three-fourths of a quartier per person.

In 1720, there was but one person rated 600 quartiers, two 500, two 400, eight from 300 to 400, and eight from 200 to 300. Say 21 persons rated from 200 to 600 quartiers.

Rates to be applied in the levy of taxes for the support of the Public Hospital, during three successive years, commencing July 3rd, 1833. Proportion of each parish for a tax of £250 sterling:—

	Quartiers.	£.	s.	d.
St. Sampson .	3,076 .	13	17	$8\frac{5}{8}$
Nalle . . .	4,407 .	19	17	$10\frac{5}{8}$
Catel . . .	16,257 .	73	7	$9\frac{2}{8}$
St. Sauveur . .	5,927 .	26	15	$1\frac{4}{8}$
St. Pierre du Bois .	5,242 .	23	13	$3\frac{2}{8}$
Torteval . .	1,073 .	4	16	$10\frac{4}{8}$
La Foret . .	2,950 .	13	6	$4\frac{1}{8}$
St. Martin . .	9,561 .	43	3	$2\frac{5}{8}$
St. André . .	6,887 .	31	1	$9\frac{4}{8}$
	55,380	£250	0	0
St. Peter Port	150,805			

In 1832, quartiers 206,185, at £20 per quartier, £4,123,700.

The church revenues consist of the small tithes and champart, together with norvals, or tithe on lands, brought under cultivation since the catholic exactions, and they are different in almost every parish.

St. Peter's Port.—A seventh of tithe and champart.

St. Martin's.— do. do.

The Forest.—A ninth of tithe and champart.

Torteval.—A third of tithe.

St. Andrew's.—A fourth of both.

St. Peter-in-the-Wood.—A third of tithe.

St. Saviour's.—The norvals and 10ths reckoned about 600 sheaves.

The Câtel.—Ninth of tithe, or the full tithe of a certain portion of the parish.

The Vale.—Five of the king's tithe only.

St. Sampson's.—Five of both.

Formerly, the 10th sheaf was set apart for tithe; but farmers agreeing to stack the whole growth in the field, have, for their trouble, to count the 11th sheaf for tithe, and the 12th for champart. The disme, or tithe of grain and flax being the king's revenue, and when the champart also belongs to the crown they are both collected together, and the rector in each parish has from it the proportion above stated; but he is not allowed out of champart payable to the lords of fiefs in private hands.

The proportion in which tithe is levied in each parish is thus shewn:—

Parishes.	Proportion of Tithes to each Person.	Sheaves of Wheat received by the Rector.	Sheaves of Barley received by the Rector.	Quarters of Wheat received by the Rector.	Quarters of Barley received by the Rector.	Total Wheat paid for Tithes.	Total Barley paid for Tithes.	Total Number of Sheaves received by the Rector.
				qrs. bsh.	qrs. bsh.	qrs. bsh.	qrs. bsh.	
St. Peter's Port	3 sheaves in 19	195	195	3 3	1 3	23 3	11 0	390
St. Sampson....	1 — 4	1000	1000	20 0	10 0	80 0	40 0	2000
Vale	1 — 5	450	450	9 0	4 2	45 0	22 2	900
Catel	1 — 9	705	853	15 1	8 2	137 1	74 2	1618
St. Saviour	1 — 3	2333	2333	46 1	23 1	138 3	69 3	11666
St. Peter du Bois	1 — 3	1400	2400	28 0	24 0	84 0	72 0	3800
Torteval	1 — 3	872	1079	16 2	10 3	49 2	32 1	1951
Forest	1 — 9	474	555	8 2	5 2	74 2	47 2	1029
St. Andrew's ..	1 — 7	1236	1236	24 1	12 1	169 3	85 3	2472
St. Martin's....	1 — 4	960	1590	18 2	15 3	74 0	63 0	2550

The following shews the Annual Net Revenue of the States:—

Years.	Impôt.	Harbour Dues and Publicans.	Market.	Total.	Years.	Impôt.	Harbour Dues and Publicans.	Market.	Total.
	£.	£.	£.	£.		£.	£.	£.	£.
1815	3638	2404	..	6043	1826	6380	2546	541	9468
1816	2385	2212	..	4598	1827	6341	2039	608	8989
1817	2351	1824	..	4176	1828	6154	2079	589	8823
1818	2442	1690	..	4133	1829	6027	2303	556	8886
1819	2471	1744	224	4440	1830	5820	2171	457	8449
1820	3439	1729	370	5538	1831	6056	2063	466	8586
1821	4158	1922	319	6399	1832	6335	2068	494	8899
1822	4187	1854	294	6336	1833				
1823	3689	1923	448	6061	1834				
1824	3901	1917	539	6358	1835				
1825	4533	2792	616	7942					

The duties levied on Imports are very trifling; there is a stamp duty on shipping, commencing at 6*d.* anchorage and 6*d.* chainage, on vessels under 10 tons, and ascending to 9*s.* on each vessel from 250 to 300 tons, and upwards.

COMMERCE.—The trade of the island is considerable, and yearly increasing; the return for last year shews the Imports and Exports to be in quantities thus:—

Imports from the 11th October, 1833, to the 10th October, 1834, both days inclusive:—Brandy, 196,578 gallons; Geneva, 43,766 do.; Rum, 6,432 do.; Wine, 352,736 do.; Cordials, 805 do.; Cider, 10,866 do.; Wheat, 21,076½ quarters;* Barley, 6,295 do.; Oats, 2,645⅛ do.; Beans, 802½ do.; Peas, 493½ do.; Vetches, 18 do.; Malt, 2 do.; Biscuit, 121½ cwt.; Flour, 818 sacks, 1,230½ cwt., and 214 barrels; Tea, 27,662 lbs.; Bullocks, 1,310; Cows, 22; Calves, 240; Sheep, 6,358; Pigs, 73; Horses, 155; Poultry, live, 3,292; Ditto, dead, 43,855 lbs.; Fresh meat, 36 cwt.; Butter, 426 tons and 884 casks; Eggs, 13,972 dozen; Potatoes, 1,667 bushels and 4 tons; Coals, 12,415⅝ tons; Small do., 501¼ tons and 92 chaldrons.

Exports from the 11th October, 1833, to the 10th October, 1834, both days inclusive:—Brandy, 45,216 gallons; Geneva, 13,416 do.; Rum, 740 do.; Wine, 207,023 do.; Cordials

* Imperial measure.

(Guernsey), 367 do.; Potatoe-spirits (do.), 8,468 do.; Cider (do.), 29,410 do.; Wheat (foreign), 213½ quarters;* Do. (Guernsey), 1,749 2-8ths; Barley, (foreign), 732 6-8ths qrs. do. (Guernsey), 127 qrs.; Vetches, 28½ qrs.; Oats, 229 do.; Peas, 290 do.; Beans, 234½ do.; Flour (Guernsey), 2,272 barrels and 688 sacks; Do. (foreign), 307 barrels; Biscuit (Guernsey manufacture), 5,372½ cwt.; Cement (do.), 826 casks; Coals, 193½ qrs. and 10 tons; Do. small, 1,229 quarters; Eggs, 12,390 dozen; Butter, 4 tons, 14 cwt. and 134 barrels; Do. (Guernsey), 406 lbs.; Horses, 54; Ditto (Guernsey), 34; Bullocks (foreign), 8; Bulls (Guernsey), 7; Cows (do.) 262; Heifers (do.) 237; Calves (do.) 68; Pigs (do.) 399; Paving stones (do.) 1,628 tons; Stone chippings (do.) 51,830 do.; Potatoes (Guernsey) 92,296 bushels; Apples (do.) 1,824½ do.; Pears (do.) 300½ do.; Do. (do.) 9,175; Grapes (do.) 3,141 lbs.; Bricks (do.) 261,000.

In September, 1804, there were 133 vessels belonging to Guernsey, of more than 11,500 tons; in September, 1813, there were 93 vessels, of more than 10,892 tons; in December, 1832, there were about 79 vessels, of 9,157 tons, trading with Spain, Portugal, France, Newfoundland, and South America.

The following official return shews the vessels registered and built in Guernsey during the last three years:—

Years ending January.	Registered.			Built.	
	Vessels.	Tons.	Men.	Vessels.	Tonnage.
1833	80	9,158	647	3	451
1834	79	9,075	637	1	298
1835	77	9,309	650	2	107

WEIGHTS AND MEASURES.—*Le poids de Paris ancien*, (ancient Paris weight), or *le poids de marc*, which is the Amsterdam and Guernsey weight:—24 grains = 1 dernier; 3 derniers = 1 gros; 8 gros = 1 once; 8 onces = 1 marc; 2 marcs = 1 pound or livre, (*poids de marc*, or Guernsey lb.) 533⅝ grains of the above weight are equal to 1 English ounce avoirdupois; and the English cwt., or 112 lb., is equal to

* Imperial measure.

$103\frac{1}{2}\frac{7}{1}\frac{3}{6}$ lb. Guernsey, or 103 lb. 1 marc. 4 oz. 6 gros 1 dernier $13\frac{1}{3}$ grains; and 100 lb. Guernsey weight are equal to 107 lb. 14 oz. $6\frac{5}{3}\frac{3}{2}\frac{4}{0}\frac{}{3}$ drams avoirdupois: hence 3,203 lb. Guernsey weight are equivalent to 3,456 lb. English avoirdupois weight.

Land Measure.—21 feet square (English) = 1 square perch; 40 square perches = 1 square vergée; 4 square vergées = 1 square acre; 5 square acres = 1 square bouvée. In some manors, the vergée consists of 36 perches, called *petite mesure.* The acre and bouvée are only used for the division of manors.

The Irish acre is exactly 4 Guernsey vergées. One Guernsey perch is equal to $1\frac{75}{121}$, or 1 perch $168\frac{2}{4}\frac{6}{8}\frac{3}{4}$ square feet English; and 1 English acre is equal to $2\frac{2}{4}\frac{3}{9}$, or 2 vergées 18 perches 342 square feet Guernsey: hence, 121 Guernsey perches are equivalent to 196 English perches, and 49 English acres are equal to 121 Guernsey vergées.

Liquid Measure.—2 pints = 1 quart; 2 quarts = 1 pot (pottle); 2 pots = 1 gallon; $52\frac{1}{2}$ gallons = 1 Bordeaux or claret hogshead. The Guernsey gallon is $12\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. larger than the English gallon, (wine measure), that was formerly in use, and which contained 231 cubic inches; and $6\frac{1}{4}$ per cent. smaller than the imperial gallon now in use, which contains 277·274 cubic inches.—Eight Guernsey gallons are equal to nine English wine gallons, old measure, and $7\frac{1}{2}$ gallons imperial measure.

Corn Measure.—5 quints = 1 denerel; 3 denerels = 1 cabot; 6 denerels = 1 bushel; 4 bushels = 1 quarter. This is called *grande mesure*, and is in use in buying and selling, and for the payment of ordinary corn rents.

There is also a *petite mesure*, used in some manors for the payment of manorial rents:—5 denerels = 1 bushel; 4 bushels = 1 quarter. The Guernsey bushel is struck for wheat, and 10 of these bushels are reckoned equal to the English quarter of eight bushels, Winchester measure. Barley and oats are sold in the same bushel, but heaped up; and when so heaped, are equal to the Winchester bushel. Ten Guernsey bushels

are equal to 7·75584 bushels, or 7¾ bushels, imperial measure, nearly.

There are several bankers in the island; English, French and Spanish money is in circulation, and there are also £1. notes. There is a saving's bank with upwards of 1,000 depositors, with £20,000. deposited in the *Billets* of the island government.

THE AGRICULTURE OF GUERNSEY.*—The surface of Guernsey may be stated at 54 square miles, or reckoning 640 acres to the square mile, at 15,366 English acres. Deducting one-third for rocks, clifts, and places not susceptive of culture,—and for houses, buildings of all sorts, streets and roads, say, 5,120, there remain in, or fit for cultivation, 10,240 English acres.

An island whose surface thus consists of little more than 10,000 acres of orchard, garden, arable and pasture land, cannot be expected to afford a great variety, or any very enlarged system of agriculture. There are, however, circumstances connected with the tenure of property, its extreme subdivision, and productiveness, and with the numbers and comfort of the inhabitants, which may suggest useful reflections to the farmer, the political economist, and the statesman of large countries. The tenure of property partakes of the double nature of land, held as a farm subject to the payment of annual rents, and as land held as freehold in perpetuity. A purchase may be made by the immediate payment of the price agreed upon, or by the payment of a part only, and converting the remainder into corn rents to be annually paid; or finally by converting the whole of the price into such rents. In the two last cases where a part of or the whole of the price is stipulated, for in annual rents, the purchaser is to all intents and purposes as much the proprietor, as in the first case where the whole price is paid down, and so long as the stipulated rents are paid, he and his heirs can

* I am indebted to Mr. De Brock, before mentioned, for this communication, and for much pleasing and instructive verbal information.

never be disturbed, and hold the land as freehold for ever. To the former proprietor, the rents are guaranteed by the land sold, and by all the other real property held at the time of sale by the purchaser clear of incumbrances; and the rents being transferable, and such property being always in demand, money can be raised by their sales with as much ease as it could before on the land itself. Thus, without the necessity of cultivating the soil, the original possessor enjoys the net income of his estate, secured on the estate itself, which he can resume in case of non-payment, while the purchaser, on the due payment of the rent charged, becomes real and perpetual owner, having an interest in the soil far above that of farmers under any other kind of tenure. Experience has proved, that under this tenure, a spirit of industry and economy was generated, producing content, ease, and even wealth, from estates, which, in other countries, would hardly be though capable of affording sustenance to their occupants. And thus also arose two classes mutually advantageous to each other: the one living on its income or free to exercise trade, and professions; the other composed of farmers raised to the rank of proprietors, dependent on their good conduct only.

The faculty of acquiring land in perpetuity, without paying any purchase money, is undeniably proved to have been of infinite benefit to the people of this island, but it must be obvious that this source of so much good could never have existed, and can no longer continue without a corresponding security, well guaranteed to the original proprietor of the land, willing to part with it.

Subdivision of Property.—An idea of the subdivision of property may be formed by a reference to the last population returns of 1831, by which there were 1,748 inhabited houses in the nine country parishes and 1,728 in the town parish. As the latter extends in the country a mile S., a mile W. and a mile N., there are more than 252 houses of the town parish that must be set down as belonging to the country, and added to the 1,748 houses of the nine country

parishes. Reckoning, therefore, 2,000 houses in the country, and dividing between them the 10,000 acres fit for cultivation, the portion is five English acres, or $12\frac{1}{3}$ Guernsey vergées to each house. This portion is not of course equally distributed; instead of five, many houses have only two or three acres attached to them, while some in each parish have twenty to thirty. An English agriculturist will smile at the calling of the latter considerable estates, and on hearing that the exceptions where estates exceed 30 acres are extremely rare. If, indeed, a few do contain 50 or 60, none beyond can be found. This will not appear surprising if we consider the small extent of the island, and its law of succession. Land cannot by law be devised by will. The eldest son takes as his eldership the house, and from 16 to 20 perches of land adjoining on the paternal or maternal estate, if there be both; he is also at liberty to retain the land in the ring fence; that is, to keep possession of all lands to which he may have access without crossing the public road, but for such parts of lands as exceeds his own share, he must pay to his co-heirs the price put upon it by the constable and douzainiers of the parish in which the land is situated. With the exception of one part of the land, which is reserved for the sons, and out of which is taken the eldership, the real property is divided, two-thirds among the sons, and one-third among the daughters: but should their relative numbers give an advantage to the daughters, if a third were allotted to them, they would be bound to forego that advantage, and to share equally with the brothers.

Productiveness of the Island.—The subdivision of the land, and the tenure by which a permanent interest in its cultivation is secured to the occupier are sufficient to account for great production. Natural causes come also to his aid, arising from fertility of soil, mildness of climate, and the excellent manure which the sand and seaweed afford; to these natural causes may be added, the excellent roads which of late years give so much facility to the procuring of that manure, and the easy access not only to the coast, but to and from every

part of the island; and again, the labour and attention rendered necessary by the small quantity of land in each farm, and bestowed on every part of it contribute largely to an increased production. Thus the tethering of all cattle, the use of the spade, and the general culture of clover, lucern, parsnips, turnips, and mangel wurzel, add wonderfully to the means of sustenance for all animals. In small farms alone, and among the wives and daughters of the occupiers, are to be found the superior care and economy requisite for the successful rearing and feeding of calves, pigs and poultry, and for the general management of the dairy. The rotation of crops generally observed, gives two crops of wheat in five years, the usual course is parsnips, wheat, barley, clover, and wheat, the greater produce of wheat being after parsnips.

If we compare the produce of wheat with that of England, we shall find that the average produce of England is stated by Arthur Young, Tull, Cobbett, and the late resolutions of several agricultural meetings, at 23 or 24 Winchester bushels per acre. Mr. Jacob, in his evidence before the House of Commons, reckons it as only 21 bushels. In Guernsey the the average produce may be reckoned at 33 bushels. Mr. Cobbett in his preface to Tull says, that on a trial in Hampshire between the broad cast and the drill husbandry the produce was the same both ways, and did not exceed 37 Winchester bushels of wheat per acre, and this was in the best land, in a very favourable year, and with the most careful culture. In Guernsey Mr. De Brock asserts that his neighbour grew in 1832, in a field of exactly two and a half English acres, 134½ Winchester bushels, or 54 per acre. It is well ascertained that other farmers, both in Guernsey and Serk have occasionally grown 55 bushels, and one respectable farmer declares, that he once grew 60 Winchester bushels per acre.

Field roots for cattle are equally productive. Parsnips are no where grown with more success than in this island, and are probably on the whole the best root that can be cultivated. It is true that mangel wurzel give heavier crops, and are al-

most equally useful for milch cows, but for the fatting of stock of all kinds, they are not to be compared to parsnips. The mode of cultivating the parsnips in Guernsey is well described by Dr. John Mac Culloch, in his communication to the Horticultural Society in September 1814. He is of opinion that it will form a material and valuable addition to the system of green crops when it shall become better known; but it is chiefly on account of the power which it possesses of resisting the injuries of frost that he points it out as an object to the Society. The produce per acre is considerably greater than that of the carrot. A good crop in Guernsey is considered about 22 tons per English acre. This is a less heavy crop than turnip, but is much more considerable than either of the carrot or potatoe; and if we consider that the quantity of saccharine, mucilaginous, and, generally speaking, of nutritious matter in the parsnip, bears a far larger proportion to the water than it does in the turnip, its superiority in point of produce will appear in this case also to be greater. The allowance for fatting an ox is 120 lbs. per day, exclusive of hay; it is found to fatten quicker than any other root, and the meat turns out more sweet and delicate. Hogs prefer this root to all others, and make excellent pork, but the boiling of the root renders the bacon flabby. The animal can be fatted in six weeks by this food. Too much can hardly be said of the beef and pork fatted on parsnips. The meat sold in Guernsey market about Christmas has no superior, and the late Dean of the island, who was near ninety when he died, used to relate that in his younger days he was invited to dine at an agricultural meeting in Hampshire, where some of the party who had been in Guernsey extolled the beef of that island; a dinner was betted Guernsey against Leadenhall; and the Dean was requested to send at Christmas a round and a surloin from Guernsey: the opposite procured the best that could be had in Leadenhall market; at the trial dinner, the superior excellence of the Guernsey beef was generally, if not unanimously admitted.* At this very moment, 10th July,

* I give these facts for the benefit of English agriculturists.

1834, there is in the Guernsey market a porker, of 22 months, weighing neat 733 lbs. English, which has never taken any thing but raw parsnips and sour milk; finer meat was never seen. In the use of parsnips one caution is absolutely necessary, they are never to be washed, but to be given as they are taken up from the ground; used in that way, they are found not to surfeit the hogs and cattle, and to fatten them better and quicker than they otherwise would; if washed they are apt to satiate, and will, the farmers say, never thoroughly fatten. Upon the whole the fertility of the soil, and the weight of the crops are undisputed; the superior quality of the cows, the excellence of the meat, milk, butter, and vegetables, is equally so. Let the production of the island be compared to that of any 10,000 acres kept in two or three hands in Great Britain, and the advantage of small farms will be obvious. Compare the surplus produce sent to market with the surplus produce of any 10,000 acres in one, two, or three hands elsewhere, and see on which side the balance will be found. 10,000 acres in Guernsey keep 2,500 milch cows, which produce, one with the other, each five pounds of butter per week; this at 1*s.* per lb., or its value in milk, amounts to 32,500*l.*; three-quarters of which are sold in town; 550 cows are exported, and about that number of fat cows, or oxen, slaughtered; and about 5,000 porkers are either exported or sold to the town. The quantity of vegetables, fruit, poultry, and eggs brought to market is prodigious, and 100,000 bushels of potatoes may be reckoned to be exported or distilled annually.

The cider of the island is of the best, and from 500 to 1,000 hogsheads are annually exported. From all this it may be seen that the produce is very considerable. In England we break up all the small farms, depopulate the country, and then cry up the surplus produce, as if that produce consumed by a vigorous happy race of yeomen did not tend to the welfare of a kingdom as much as when carried to large towns to feed a miserable population, living by the precarious returns of manufactures instead of the certain rewards of agriculture.

Besides, the main fact upon which the sticklers for large farms rest their argument is absolutely disputed; surplus produce from large farms is not greater than it would be from moderately sized farms. There are larger estates in England than the whole of this island; but where will one be found that produces the same quantity of provisions as is sent by the small farms of this island to market?

Look at the hovels of the English and Irish, and compare them with the Guernsey cottages, and the effect of giving to the occupier an interest in the soil and dwelling will at once be seen. In this island that interest is permanent, in England and Ireland it is limited and precarious. The writers of the present day on political economy mention the subdivision of landed property in Ireland as the principal cause of the poverty and barbarism of the Irish; it is not the smallness but the uncertainty of the tenure which is the cause of the misery. The land is indeed subdivided, so as to barely suffice, even in potatoes, to sustain the occupier's family, and then the poor are made to outbid one another in the price at which they may obtain possession, and the term is so short, and the price so high, that the object of the occupier is not to improve the spot, but to procure a miserable existence for the year.

JERSEY.

The sister island of Guernsey, the larger of the two, and the most southern of the group of the Norman Isles, is at its N.W. point situated in N. latitude 49. 16., and in 2. 22. longitude west of London.

The distance from Jersey to Carteret, or to Port Bail, which are the two nearest French ports, is only from five to six leagues; to Guernsey, about seven leagues; to Alderney, about 10; to Weymouth, about 25; to the Isle of Wight, about 30; to Southampton, about 40. The form of this island is that of an irregular parallelogram. Its greatest length, from S.E. to N.W. is about 12 miles; the width does not in any part exceed seven miles. By a very accurate measure-

ment it contains a superficies of 39,000 or 40,000 acres, or 62 square miles.

HISTORY.—The early account of this island is sufficiently treated of under Guernsey. It was occupied by the Romans as a military station; about the middle of the sixth century it was annexed by Childebert to the see of Dol in Brittany. From an early period the French were desirous of annexing the island to their dominion; and in 912, A. D., it was ceded to Rollo (see Guernsey) by Charles IV. King of France.

In the time of Edward the Second of England the French invaded Jersey, and did a great deal of injury to the open country; but they were repulsed before Mont Orgueil Castle, and their fleet, shortly afterwards, was utterly defeated by the English. Another formidable invasion, a few years afterwards, also failed to subjugate the island to the French dominion. But in the reign of Henry the Sixth, Surdeval, a Norman gentleman, with a French force, contrived to gain the celebrated fortress above named, which they retained for some years; but they never subdued more than half the island to their authority. Philip De Carteret secured the castle of Grosnez, and by the aid of a fleet from England in the reign of Edward the Fourth, the fortress was again retaken from the French, and the latter were driven back to the Continent.

Henry the Seventh, when Earl of Richmond, visited Jersey; when he came to the crown, he gave a new charter to confirm the privileges of the inhabitants.

In the reign of Edward the Sixth, the French took and fortified the little isle of Serk; and from thence they made a descent on Jersey, at Boulay Bay, but were repulsed with great loss; and Serk was retaken from them by a stratagem.

The Norman Isles were faithful, so long as they were able, to the cause of the house of Stuart. During the Commonwealth they considerably annoyed the government of the parliament, and the commerce of those, who acknowledged its authority. Jersey twice afforded a shelter to Charles the Se-

cond, when he was excluded from his other dominions; which that prince, when he took possession of the crown, gratefully acknowledged by a present to the States of the island of a silver mace, with a Latin inscription on it, acknowledging their loyalty, and that of Sir G. and P. De Carteret.*

Elizabeth Castle was the only place that could be defended against the victorious arms of the Parliament. Here Sir George de Carteret, with a brave band of soldiers, maintained a stand for the king for some time. But a shell, which struck the chapel, blew up the magazine, and killed more than 40 of his best soldiers, compelled him to surrender the fortress to the besiegers. Thus Jersey, in common with every other part of the British dominions, was brought under the government of the Commonwealth.

Jersey was now under the rule of arbitrary and oppressive governors, who probably were willing to punish the inhabitants for their loyalty and opposition. Haines extorted money by the most illegal conduct, and the soldiery were suffered to indulge with impunity in every species of violence. The Restoration put an end to this system of tyranny.

Charles was not ungrateful for their loyal attachment. Sir George De Cateret was advanced to honours and emolument, and admitted to the friendship of the king. Elizabeth Castle, which had so long withstood his enemies, was repaired and greatly enlarged.

The circumstances that led to the abdication of James the Second did not affect the tranquillity of Jersey; and during the long series of years which intervened between the revo-

* Inscription on the Mace.—'Tali haud omnes dignatur honore. Carolus Secundus, Magnæ Britanniæ, Franciæ, et Hiberniæ Rex serenissimus, affectum Regium ergà Insulam de Jersey (in quâ bis habuit receptum dum cæteris ditionibus excluderetur) hocce monumento verè Regio posteris consecratum voluit. Jussitque ut deinceps Balivis præferatur, in perpetuam memoriam fidei, tùm augustissimo parenti Carolo primo, tùm suæ Majestati, sævientibus bellis civilibus, servatæ a viris clarissimis, Philippo et Georgio de Carteret, equitibus auratis, hujus insulæ Baliv. et Reg. Præfect.'

lution and the reign of George the Third, no attempt was made by the powers of France to dispute the possession of the island.

On the first of May, in the year 1779, when, from war having been but just declared between England and France, Jersey was comparatively unprepared, and contained a very small number of regular troops, a fleet arrived in St. Ouen's bay with a force of nearly 6,000 men, destined to invade the island, under the command of the Prince of Nassau, who gave the first intimation of the commencement of hostilities between the two nations. A debarkation was attempted; but the enemy perceiving the opposition likely to be experienced from the different corps of militia, who assembled on the alarm with the greatest celerity, and a small body of troops of the line, which was drawn up to resist their landing, returned to their ships, and resolved upon making the attempt in a different quarter. The vessels accordingly appeared in St. Brelade's Bay, but the enemy, deterred by the same appearance of resistance, finally relinquished their design.

Another attack was, however, soon meditated; but the fleet which was purposed for the service having been defeated by a British squadron, the plan was abandoned.

In 1781, the French, having landed in the night, actually made their way to St. Helier's, without being observed by any one. They surprised the Lieut. Governor, Major Corbet, in his bed, made him prisoner, and compelled him to sign a capitulation. Alarm guns however were fired; and Capt. Mulcaster, the principal engineer of the island, contrived with a few troops, to gain possession of Elizabeth Castle, and determined to defend it to the last extremity, so that when the French General advanced, accompanied by the Governor, his prisoner, to demand entrance into the fortress, they were saluted by a cannon ball from the ramparts, which wounded many of them, and made the rest halt, and send a command in writing from Major Corbet, to deliver up the castle. Capt. Mulcaster, without even looking at it, put it into his pocket. The French officer urged the surrender on the ground that

10,000 more troops were about to land. Being unable to to make any impression, they retreated with the hostile bands, to the Royal Square; in the mean time, Major Pierson, having collected all the forces he could, advanced on St. Helier's. Baron Rullecourt sent to him to intreat him to submit to his force, to save the town, and the effusion of human blood,—especially as resistance, on account of the greatness of the French force was evidently vain. 'Go,' said Major Pierson, 'go to your General, and tell him that if he had twice 10,000 soldiers, the brave troops you have seen are determined, in less than an hour to drive him from his post.'

Thus disappointed in their hopes, and unable to force a submission, the French considered it most prudent to retire again to the town and concentrate their forces, that they might withstand an engagement which now appeared inevitable.

The militia forces showed the utmost eagerness to commence the engagement, and their anxiety was not long restrained: the various bodies soon moved on and advanced through different streets to the market-place, where the French were assembled in the greatest force. The enemy were impetuously attacked; but, though deprived of all hope of success, were determined nevertheless to offer a resolute opposition. Major Pierson was shot dead at the commencement of the engagement, but the ardour of the troops suffered no abatement; the French were defeated; a few of the survivors escaped to their vessels, and the rest were secured as prisoners. Their loss was very considerable, among the number was Baron Rullecourt; about 80 of the militia and regular forces were killed or wounded. Since this period Jersey, though subject during the continuance of hostilities between England and the gigantic power of Napoleon, to many alarms, never suffered the calamities of an attack.

Physical Aspect.—Jersey exhibits an inclined plane, elevated to the N. and shelving towards the S.E.; part of its eastern coast commencing at Mont Orgueil, and the whole of its northern shore, form one continuous range of rocks,

rising abruptly from the ocean, frequently to an elevation of from 40 to 50 fathoms. It is a very probable conjecture, that many of the adjacent rocks were originally part of the island itself. There is a legendary tradition, that Jersey was once so contiguous to France, that persons passed over on a plank or bridge, paying a small toll to the Abbey of Coutances. Several circumstances give a colour to the probability, that the whole of St. Michael's Bay, from Cape la Hogue to Cape Fréhel, or the greater part of it, was once dry ground, either forming a portion of the main land or insulated.

On approaching from the N. the rocks rise perpendicularly from the sea to the height of more than 200 feet, presenting a perfectly inaccessible barrier, and assuming every variety of grotesque form. Judging superficially or from its W. side the island might be supposed quite barren; such, however, is by no means the case;—in many parts the roads are richly embowered, and the country seems one vast orchard, presenting in spring a richly luxuriant scene. The town of St. Helier's, which is the principal of the island, is finely situated in the eastern corner of St. Aubin's bay. It lies open to the warm southern breezes, but is sheltered by the hills on the other points. The houses are solid buildings of brick and stone, and in the English style. Thirty or forty years since, many of them, even in the principal streets, were covered with thatch.

The bay of St. Aubin is embraced by a crescent of smiling eminences, thickly sprinkled with villas and orchards. St. Helier's crouches at the base of a lofty rock, which forms the eastern cape; St. Aubin's is similarly placed, near Noirmont point, the westward promontory; and between the two stretches a sandy shelving beach, studded with martello towers. The centre of the bay is occupied by Elizabeth Castle, a fortress erected on a lofty insulated rock, the jagged pinnacles of which shoot up in grotesque array round the battlements. The harbour is artificial, but capacious and safe, and so com-

pletely commanded by the castle as to be nearly inaccessible to an enemy.

The rock on which this fortress is built, is nearly a mile in circuit. In time of war with France it was of great importance, and strongly garrisoned.

The fine fortress called Fort Regent is built on Mont de la Ville, or the Town Hill which rises 150 feet above high water mark. When it was private property, there were gardens to its summit; it was purchased by Government for the sum of 11,286*l.* sterling, as a site of a fortress, which was finished about the year 1815, and deemed impregnable. It is built of granite, is bomb proof and covers more than four acres of ground. It is affirmed that the most powerful fleet would be annihilated by its guns. There is room within its walls for 5,000 men; all that human art and strength could do, appear to have been called into service, to render this fortification inaccessible. Store houses are hewn out in the solid rock for the ammunition;—the well, from which the garrison is supplied with water, is 233 feet deep, 195 feet of which is bored through the solid stone. A dozen men can raise the water into cisterns, by means of a forcing pump, and they can bring up about 6,000 gallons per day. This citadel is said to have cost upwards of a million sterling; the prospect from it, seaward, is magnificent.

Geology and Soil.—The remarks given under Guernsey are in some respects applicable to Jersey, but the remarks by Mr. C. Konig will doubtless be acceptable to the readers of my former volumes.

'A beautiful variety of granite, like sienite, is found towards Noirmont Point, in which the feldspar, which is the greater part of the mass, is of a deep flesh and thick red colour, with large grains of white quartz, which is sometimes crystallized in it, and not unfrequently mixed with much massive thallite, or epidote, which here and there forms small veins. It juts out in huge masses, and is in some places overlaid by thick beds of loam, with imbedded blocks, and rolled pieces of the

same rock, of which also innumerable rounded fragments are scattered about on the shore. In the bay of St. Brelade it occurs with veins of common quartz, which is sometimes indistinctly crystallized. In this bay stands a small insulated rock of the same large grained sienite, in which may be seen enclosed a moveable rounded piece of the same mass, which partly projects from the hollow in which it is lodged.

'The varieties of the sienite appear in some parts to pass into porphyry, in others into a kind of green stone, in a state of partial, or entire decomposition; to this belongs the rock which forms the Town Hill. The well sunk from its top passes through from 30 to 50 feet of the rotten rock; the rest, to the depth of 233 feet, is in the fresh sienitic rock. Both these varieties of rock, have a seamed structure; the direction of the seams in general is from S.W. to N.E. The rifts of the fresh rock are often coated with common pyrites.

'At Fremont, and its neighbourhood, we find abundance of compact feldspar, with disseminated quartz: and also, here and there, with crystalline particles of flesh-red, common feldspar; there are several varieties of it, both with regard to the colour of the mass, which is generally of a yellowish grey, and the particles of quartz and common feldspar imbedded in it. The surface of Fremont is entirely covered with masses and fragments of this rock in various states of disintegration; they are all quite white, at least on the surface, and some are almost entirely changed into kaolin. At the foot of Fremont, in Bonne-Nuit bay, there are several large rolled pieces of the same decomposed rock. In going down the road, at the foot of Fremont, leading to Bonne-Nuit bay, we see on the left side, a bed of this porphyritic rock laid open; it is fissured in all directions, and reddish brown on the rifts; a deposition of loam, with large fragments and rolled pieces of the same rock rests on this porphyry bed.

'The compact feldspar, in a completely disintegrated state, may be seen in going to Boulay bay, on the hills nearly to the southward of the signal post; on one side a great mass of it is laid bare, which, at first sight, has much the appearance of white lime stone. A curious variety of compact feldspar, also

occurs in masses in Boulay bay and its neighbourhood; it is variously tinged by a green substance, which in some parts appears like green earth; in others, like thallite, and even like serpentine. Some varieties are porphyritic, and of a pale green colour, passing into greyish white, with green spots. Boulay bay presents a very curious aspect by those quantities of large green stones, and the huge boulders of variegated porphyritic masses, partly disengaged, and partly still embedded in the loam; but the most remarkable rock in this bay, quite up to La Coupe, and of which immense blocks lie scattered about, and stand out in their natural situation, is a pudding stone, the mass of which is the green thallite-like substance, sometimes pure dark green, sometimes pale, including pebbles, mostly of the porphyritic rock above mentioned, from very small ones to several feet in diameter: this is a very fine rock, and bears some resemblance to the beautiful Egyptian breccia. It appears to be in connexion with another of similar nature, which forms the high road in going from St. Martin's to Rozel harbour. This is a conglomerate, different from that in Boulay bay by the cementing mass which presents but little of the green substance with which the other abounds; its cement is in general of a ferrugino-argillaceous nature. This conglomerate appears to discontinue in St. Catherine's bay, where a porphyritic rock begins, which is partly not unlike that of Fremont; but is also seen in a state of clay porphyry. It contains nests of green earth, and a green substance like thallite, but softer.

'Besides green stone, both fresh and in various degrees of disintegration, which occurs in some parts as insulated masses in connexion with the sienite, two other rocks, belonging to the trap formation, deserve to be mentioned; the green porphyry, and the amygdaloid, which are seen in considerable beds at Roque Mollet, on the road leading to St. Saviour's, where both rocks are quarried, and employed for paving and the building of walls. The green porphyry has a blackish green base, in which are embedded slender prismatic crystals of feldspar, mostly decomposed; and also, here and there small withered globules of what appears to be carbonate

of lime. The amygdaloid consists of the same mass with that forming the base of the green prophyry, only that its colour has generally more of a bluish brown tint; it contains small nodules of calcareous spar, and the cells are generally lined with green earth.'

The Climate is exceedingly mild, and invalids who dislike the moistness and fog of an English winter, could not find a better sojourn than in the Channel islands,* where the temperature is nearly similar to that of the south of France. Many of the inhabitants are long lived; I have seen some at a very advanced period, full of energy and youthful vivacity.

POPULATION.—Jersey is divided into 12 parishes, which form part of the see of Winchester. The following table shews the population of Jersey, and the number of inhabited houses, in the year 1831, when the last census was taken; and also the population of 1821 and 1826.

Parishes.	Population in 1821.	1826.			1831.									
		Males.	Females.	Total.	Inhabited Houses.	Families.	Number of Houses Building.	Uninhabited Houses.	Families chiefly Employed in Agriculture.	Families Employed in Trade, Manufactures, and Handicraft.	Families not comprised in the two preceding classes.	Men and Children of the Male Sex.	Women and Children of the Female Sex.	Total 1831.
St. Helier....	10118	6536	7579	14,115	1917	3319	31	79	146	1957	1216	7298	8729	16027
St. Saviour..	1637	894	941	1,835	305	429	2	2	157	173	99	1032	1164	2196
St. Peter	1854	858	1029	1,917	315	384	2	6	202	146	36	1028	1122	2150
Trinity.....	2048	987	1081	2,068	294	369	..	1	252	86	31	1001	1097	2098
Grouville....	1917	904	1008	1,912	200	363	6	..	164	158	43	1000	1080	2080
St. Brelade..	1854	877	998	1,875	307	482	3	9	128	191	113	953	1116	2069
St. Lawrence	1872	880	1030	1,910	323	408	2	2	247	127	64	962	1081	2043
St. Martin ..	1691	883	962	1,845	307	397	1	2	215	172	10	928	1028	1956
St. Ouen	2061	970	1128	2,098	337	358	2	1	256	92	3	930	986	1916
St. John	1657	825	920	1,745	264	404	..	6	182	160	62	887	968	1855
St. Clement	938	509	623	1,132	173	240	..	3	73	154	14	536	679	1215
St. Mary	1020	488	520	1,008	158	191	1	4	113	64	11	451	526	977
Total..	28737	15641	17819	33,460	4900	7344	50	115	2135	3480	1700	17606	19576	36582

* The provisions are also excellent and cheap; the following being the average prices. Butcher's meat, per pound of nearly 18 ounces, 6*d.* to 6½*d.*

The population at this period (October 1835) is, I should suppose, not far from 40,000; exclusive of upwards of 10,000 persons who visit Jersey annually—some remaining a length of time in the island.

The character I have given to the inhabitants of Guernsey equally applies to Jersey,* and loyalty, obedience to the laws, and attachment to England, which the men of Jersey have ever shewn, deserves the marked gratitude of all who desire the perpetuity of our Islandic Empire.

The Religion of the Islanders is like that of Guérnsey, of the established faith.

That Druidism was prevalent in the Norman Isles, as well as on the neighbouring Continent, is evident from the vestiges which still remain in them of that dreadful superstition; some of which are to be seen in Jersey as well as in Guernsey. There is one at Anne Ville, and another at Le Couperon.

St. Magloire was one of the earliest Missionaries to Jersey. By his preaching he persuaded the Governor, and the inhabitants generally, to renounce idolatry and to receive baptism.

The Normans built the 12 churches which are now on

butter, on the average from April to October, 10*d.*; from October to March, 1*s.* Eggs, during the summer months, 5*d.* and 6*d.* per dozen; in winter, from 7*d.* to 1*s.* Milk, 2*d.* per quart. Bread from 1½*d.* to 2*d.* per pound. Black tea, (such as would sell in England at 7*s.* to 8*s.*) 3*s.* 4*d.* Green tea, 4*s.* to 6*s.* Gunpowder tea, 6*s.* 6*d.* Best loaf sugar, 6*d.* per pound. Moist sugar, from 3*d.* to 4*d.* Currants, best Turkey, 4½*d.* Geese, 2*s.* to 2*s.* 6*d.* each. Turkies, 3*s.* to 4*s.* 6*d.* Vegetables very abundant and cheap. Best cognac brandy, 7*s.* per gallon. Cette, 3*s.* to 3*s.* 6*d.* Hollands, 3*s.* 6*d.* Best Jamaica rum, 4*s.* to 5*s.* per gallon. Best port and sherry wines, 25*s.* per dozen. Grave and Sauterne, from 10*s.* to 30*s.* Marsalla, 12*s.* Clarets, from 15*s.* to 50*s.* Good Burgundy, 25*s.* Vin du pays, 6*s.* per dozen.

* Many Members of Parliament and others, who met Col. Le Couteur and M. Le Breton (the Attorney-General of Jersey), recently in London, when those gentlemen formed a deputation with M. De Brock from the Channel Islands, will bear me out in the observation, that in no country could there be found persons of superior mental endowments, or urbanity of manners, than the Norman Isle gentlemen.

the Island. From the time of Rollo, till the reign of Elizabeth, they were under the jurisdiction of the bishops of Coutances, in Normandy; who, with other ecclesiastics, derived their revenues from these isles. Henry the Eighth seized on much of the church property, and it belongs to the crown to the present period.

In the reigns of Edward the Sixth, and of Elizabeth, popery was abolished, and the doctrines of the Reformation made their way generally among the people; chiefly through the zeal of some of the French Protestants, who were driven from their native land by the hand of persecution. For many years they established the Presbyterian Church Government.

Charles the First, at the entreaty of Archbishop Laud, granted revenues for the endowment of three fellowships in the University of Oxford, for the education of three clergymen for Guernsey and Jersey, to which Bishop Morley added five scholarships in Pembroke College; and there is a legacy from a native of the Island, which is appropriated to the same object. These Islands belong to the see of Winchester.

The number of churches and chapels connected with the established church is seventeen, including the chapel at the hospital; the number of sittings contained in them, about 1000.

The services at St. Paul's and St. James's chapels are entirely in English; and there is also an English service in St. Helier's church in the afternoon, which is attended by the troops in garrison.

Education is making very great progress, by means of national and parochial schools; and every individual of the rising generation is receiving more than elementary tuition.

The Press exhibits the advantages of freedom from taxation, there being no less than 11 weekly and duo-weekly journals—4 in English and 7 in French.

There are several 'Benevolent,' 'Philanthropic,' and 'Friendly' Societies.

GOVERNMENT, MILITARY DEFENCE, LAWS AND CUSTOMS.—These are in almost all respects very similar to those of the sister Island of Guernsey.

The Governor is the principal officer in the Island. He receives, as his salary, the corn-tithes of ten parishes, which belong to the King. On suspicion of treason, with the consent of two jurats, he can seize and imprison any inhabitant. No foreigner can enter the island without his permission. His jurisdiction, however, is principally of a military nature. The fortresses and soldiery are peculiarly subject to his controul. The Governor is not usually resident; the duties of the situation devolve on the Lieutenant-Governor.

The militia of the island forms six battalions of infantry, amounting to about two thousand men; and to each battalion is a company of artillery, with light 24-pounders. All the inhabitants, from the age of 17 to 65, bear arms, and are armed and clothed by Government, but receive no pay.

Besides the several castles and forts, there is a chain of towers and batteries around the island. There are also signal posts on the most elevated positions, forming a general line of communication.

The Court of Jurisdiction is composed of 12 jurats and a bailiff, with the clergy and the constables of the island. The seat of the bailiff is raised above that of the governor, because he is the representative of the king, and appointed by him. He keeps the public seal, but he must not use it without the consent of three jurats. The jurats are elected by the people for life, but have no salary. The constable is the principal magistrate in every parish. The States of the Island are composed of 38 members, 24 of whom are chosen by the people.

Lord Coke decided that 'the king's writ runneth not into these isles,' though his commission under the great seal does. An appeal may be made from the courts in Jersey or Guernsey to the king in council; but such an application is both tedious and expensive.

Of the laws, which embrace an infinite variety of local

usages, it will not be expected that more than a very cursory notice should be taken. It will therefore only be requisite to relate some of the principal heads which may serve to show their nature and spirit.

The laws of Jersey are composed of the customs of Normandy; of charters given by different sovereigns; of acts formed by the States, and confirmed by the sovereign; and of orders made by the king in council. In 1771, the States compiled a body of laws, which were sanctioned by His Majesty George the Third, and now the States do not meet in a legislative capacity; at least, not as they once did. There are some regulations respecting game, which are of little moment, as there is scarcely any left in the island.

Capital punishments are of rare occurrence. Forgery does not, as in England, subject the culprit to death. In 1814, a person found guilty of the crime was sentenced to the pillory, and had the end of his right ear cut off.

The crimes punishable with death, which is inflicted by hanging, are murder, rape, arson, robbery on the high way, and burglary.

When sentence of death is awarded by the court, it is always carried into immediate execution, unless the condemned is recommended to the mercy of the king; in which case the punishment is deferred until the royal pleasure is received.

Whenever capital punishment is inflicted on a prisoner, he is sentenced to the pillory or banishment for five or more years, his estate, real and personal, is forfeited to the crown.

The laws in reference to rents, and the succession of property, are singular.

From the great number of small farms, perhaps arises much of that equal diffusion of comfort and enjoyment which are to be found in Jersey and Guernsey; the extremes of poverty or wealth are seldom to be found.

All encroachments on property, and all civil injuries which

require a prompt remedy, may be resisted by the Clameur de Haro, which is in force here as in Guernsey. The oppressed individual has only to call on the name of Rollo three times, and the aggressor is forbidden, at his peril, to attempt any thing further against him. *Ha,* means the call of a person in distress; and *Ro* is a contraction for the name of Rollo, the first Duke of Normandy. *Haro,* therefore, means 'Rollo! help me!'

Treason, as has been before observed, is reserved for the cognizance of the king in council; the court not being competent to pronounce on the crime, or even to examine witnesses on the charge.

Manslaughter by fine, imprisonment, or banishment, according to circumstances.

Cutting and maiming, termed 'maihem' in the old Norman code, subjects the offender to corporal punishment in addition, in aggravated cases.

Larceny is punished by imprisonment, public whipping, or banishment, at the discretion of the court.

Felo de se is followed by the confiscation of property, and the body is buried without the ceremonies of the church.

Libel and slander are not prosecuted by indictment; but the party aggrieved may either proceed with the king's procureur or attorney general, in which case the defendant, if found guilty, may be mulcted in a fine to the king, and damages to the prosecutor, or an action may be brought on the case for civil damages alone; in either mode of proceeding the defendant may plead a justification in bar of the action.

Assaults may be prosecuted criminally when they are of a serious nature, or committed on the king's highway; the culprit is then fined and imprisoned: or the complainant may be joined with the attorney-general in the prosecution; in which case a fine to the king is imposed without imprisonment, and civil damages are given for the benefit of the injured party.

There are also various laws which regulate the ser-

vices of the militia. By these the Court has the power of imposing fines for neglect of duty, or inattention to discipline, and can proceed to imprisonment.

Civil causes are also decided by laws which owe their origin to the Norman feudal system.

Tenures are mostly fee simple. The law of inheritance with respect to the descent of estates, does not vary in any great degree from that which in the time of Lyttleton was observed in England. In the division of property the eldest son or daughter, in failure of male issue, is entitled to a certain portion of the estate, together with the principal house, to discharge the seigneurial services and ground rent, payable in corn, imposed by the original lords of the soil on its donation to a vassal, and to indemnify him for those military supplies which every estate is bound to furnish, according to its extent, if the defence of the Island should require them. He is also to defray all other ground rents, which, although now payable in money, may have been due upon the estate for forty years; but is privileged to claim the avenues leading to the principal house, to a certain number of vergées of land, and to one on every ten comprehended in the estate, as his right from primogeniture.

These claims having been satisfied, two-thirds of what remains are divided amongst all the sons, and one-third amongst the daughters, in equal proportions; each being charged with their respective portions of any other mortgages that may be due upon the property.

That estates cannot be very large when land must be thus divided, will be readily supposed. But the law, as it now exists, is not unproductive of considerable benefit. It tends to the increase of population by giving a more general competence, excites the independence of the people, and renders absolute poverty unfrequent.

No real property is devisable by will.

A widow claims as her dower one-third of the estate owned by her husband.

A widower enjoys at his wife's death, if there have been

children, her real estate until he marries again; but it then reverts to her next of kin, as it does if there has been no issue.

A wife may reclaim, at her husband's death, her estate, if sold or encumbered by him without her sanction being expressed by a participation in the deed: should she die first, her heirs have the same privilege.

A father cannot give, except during his life, a greater share of his landed property to any one child than the law specifies. His donation may be annulled by an action commenced within a year and a day after his decease.

All sales of land belonging to minors may be revoked by them on coming of age.

The holders of estates owe homage to the Lords of the Manors, and, when they are required, are obliged to deliver into the Baronial Court an account of the lands they possess under the penalty of a seizure of their property, to be held until the contempt is cleared. The Lords in collateral successions, enjoy the estate of the deceased for one year.

The undisturbed possession of an estate for 40 years forms a good and sufficient title.

All title-deeds and mortgages are inserted in a register placed under the care of an officer duly appointed: the neglect of this insertion invalidates the mortgage.

If an estate is overcharged with mortgages, the *cessio bonorum*, or relinquishment of property, is allowed to the mortgager. The mortgagees institute proceedings to establish their claims, which last for a year, during which time the Lord of the Manor holds the estate of the insolvent. It is then demanded of the last mortgagee whether he will take the estate and make good all the preceding claims upon it; if he refuses, his own claim upon the estate is altogether cancelled, and a similar offer is made to the next in succession; and the estate continues to be rotatively so offered, until the overcharge having thus been cleared off, a mortgagee is found willing to take possession of the estate and guarantee the claims of the rest. But however hard this may appear upon the last creditors, it must be

remembered that, all mortgages being registered, the charges due upon every estate are learnt with the greatest facility.

The tenure of land purchased with cash only, cannot be considered stable until the expiration of a year and a day; as in the intermediate time the nearest relations of the seller, or the Lord of the Manor, are privileged by the law of *Retraite*, or pre-emption, to take the estate from the buyer on repaying him the purchase-money: but the lapse of time above specified debars them from the right. If, however, the estate is bought with rents, the sale is not to be questioned, as the law then views it as an exchange of real property, rather than as a purchase.

Rents are a mortgage on estates. They were formerly either paid in corn or in money, varying according to the value of grain. But many dissensions having arisen from the nomination of the price to be paid by those who owed them, it was definitely fixed by an order of council that corn rents, with the exception of those due to the King's revenue, the church, the clergymen, and Lords of Manors, should for the future be discharged in money at the rate of 2*s.* 1*d.* per capital, a measure inferior in size to a Winchester bushel, or 16*s.* 8*d.* per quarter; but in all deeds the term corn rents is still retained.

The origin of this species of corn rent, which is of very ancient date, was occasioned by the poverty of the inhabitants and the scarcity of money. He who was unable to raise sufficient to pay the whole price of the land, was permitted to leave a certain portion of the amount secured on it, for which he paid interest with its produce. The utility of this law at length caused its extension to every description of real property, such as houses, &c. It is now only required that one quarter of the purchase money of an estate shall be paid down; the rest may remain in rents due upon it.

This system may perhaps justly be considered as well calculated to stimulate exertion, as it holds out a prospect of property to be gained with a small capital, and to be retained with attention and industry.

A wife is entitled at the death of her husband, to half of his personal property, if he leaves no children; but only to one third if there should be issue. One third is then the portion of the children, and one third is disposable at the pleasure of the testator. A widower without children may distribute all his money in any way.

The personal property of intestates is divided equally when there are only sons, or only daughters; but when there are both, the sons are entitled to two thirds, and the daughters share the remainder.

In all collateral successions, the real and the unbequeathed personal property lapses to the nearest relations *per capite* and not *per stirpe;* and to the males in exclusion of the females, in the same degree of relationship.

Ten years is the term of limitation on actions for debt, and on bonds and other simple contracts.

Inquests on sudden and accidental deaths are held, on a mandamus from the chief magistrate, by the Vicomte and 12 jurors who are summoned by him: whoever he choses for the service is compelled to attend.

Lunatics, or those who are considered incapable of managing their own affairs, may be deprived of the administration of their property by an order of the court, which, however, is not granted until incapacity is fully proved by six principal people, inhabitants of the same parish, and competent to form a judgment. A curator is then chosen by seven of the nearest relatives of the lunatic, who are equally responsible with the person to whom the trust is committed for the due administration of the estate.

Nuisances or encroachments on the King's high road are removed or prevented by the court, which annually holds views in three parishes, and is conducted by a sworn jury to those parts where its interference is required. It can proceed in a summary manner against offenders, and punish them by fine, the amount of which is discretionary.

The ecclesiastical laws, which are all founded on the Canons of James the First, grant to the Dean the power of be-

stowing special licences for marriage; he has also the entry and probate of wills, which must be registered in his office, and approved under his seal: and he gives letters of administration of the goods of intestates, dying without heirs of their body, to the next of kindred.

Whatever may be the merit or the efficacy of the insular laws, it is much to be wished that they were arranged and collected. They are, with the exception of those relating to the church, to be sought for at present in volumes of ancient customs, or are dispersed in numberless Orders of Council, or are to be drawn from precedents.

The formation of a regular code would be of universal benefit. It would lay open an easier path to the knowledge of the laws, now not attainable without great difficulty, would facilitate the decisions of the Jurats, and remove many of those ambiguities which impede the administration of justice.

But a distant hope that such good will be at last effected is all that can now be indulged in. It is reserved for those times when the heats of party spirit shall have subsided, and the States shall come to the patriotic determination of confiding to competent persons the task of arranging the whole body of judicial institutes.

The inhabitants of Jersey estimate their property, income, rates, and rents, by quarters of wheat. A person who has 60 quarters of wheat per annum, is worth about 50*l.* a year; and in a similar proportion.

The people in general furnish, according to an equitable arrangement, their quota of horses and men for the repair of the roads.

The tithes on apples and potatoes, with the fees for marriages and funerals, are found sufficient for the maintenance of the clergy. The crown claims the tithe of the corn.

There is an iron box, called Le Tronc, placed on the outside of every church, with the following passage from Scripture on a tablet over it, 'Celui qui a pitié du pauvre prête à l'Eternel; qui lui rendra son bienfait.' The product of these, with that of collections every Sunday at the church doors, is

distributed quarterly. The parishes keep the parsonage houses in repair.

The following dates, recording the consecration, &c. will show the antiquity of the respective parish churches throughout the island, extracted from an ancient manuscript among the records of Coutances in Normandy:—St. Brelade, 27th May, A.D. 1111; St. Martin, 4th January, 1116; St. Clement, 29th September, 1117; St. Ouen, 4th September, 1130; St. Saviour, 30th May, 1154; Trinity 3rd September, 1163; St. Peter, 29th June, 1167; St. Lawrence, 4th January, 1199; St. John, 1st August, 1204; Grouville, 25th August, 1322; St. Mary, 5th October, 1320; St. Helier, 15th August, 1341.

REVENUES.—The following items compose the island income:—

Anchorage Duties for each voyage on all vessels belonging to his Majesty's subjects not residing in this island, arriving in the harbours or roadsteads, of eight *sols* (4*d.*) per ton, according to the tonnage stated in the register.

Quarantine Duties, each voyage, on all vessels or boats belonging to his Majesty's subjects arriving in the harbours or roadsteads of this island, viz.:—on all them that are employed as coasters 4 *sols* (2*d.*) per ton; and on all those who do not come into the harbours or roadsteads more than four times a year, 8 *sols* (4*d.*) per ton, according to the tonnage stated in the register.

Anchorage and Quarantine Duties on Foreign Vessels, each voyage, on all French vessels or boats, a duty of 4 *livres*, 2 *sous*, 6 *deniers* (3*s.* 5½*d*); and on all their foreign vessels 16 *sous* (8*d.*).

The following is the amount of impôt, or duty:—

On Portuguese, Spanish, and Italian wines, 2*l.* 10*s.* per pipe; of French or Rhenish wines, 1*l.* 10*s.* per pipe; on spirits, 1*s.* per gallon; a publican who sells wines and spirits pays annually for his licence, 5*l.*

The annual revenue of the island, on an average, may be thus computed:—

Duty on wines and spirits, 7,250*l.*; licences on public

houses, 500*l.*; anchorage and harbour dues, &c., applied to the piers, 2,250*l.*; sterling, 10,000*l.* The debt of Jersey on the 1st January, 1834, was 61,652*l.* at 4 per cent. interest, which causes a deduction of 2,483*l.* from the net revenue.

The COMMERCE of the island has considerably increased since the peace; upwards of 60,000 tons of English and French shipping annually enter the harbours, and there are 220 vessels of various dimensions, and estimated at 25,000 tons, belonging to the merchants of Jersey, who have settlements and fishing stations in N. America, as follows:

Jersey Settlements in North America.

On the Coast of	Vessels.	Tons.	Jersey Men.	Natives.
Gulf St. Lawrence	27	3893	517	950
New Brunswick	1	87	25	110
Cape Breton	10	645	180	660
Labrador	14	1604	298	160
Newfoundland	27	2256	255	800
	79	8485	1275	2680
			Persons 3955	

In 1812 the mercantile shipping of Jersey consisted of 59 vessels, burthen 6,003, navigated by 519 seamen; in 1833 the increase has been 112 vessels, tonnage 15,436, seamen 1,500. The vessels cleared for five years were—

	INWARDS.		OUTWARDS.	
	Ships.	Tonnage.	Ships.	Tonnage.
1329	998	69,447	1131	61,921
1830	1021	69,084	1136	63,603
1831	973	68,422	963	58,863
1832	1025	70,025	1052	6,497
1833	1051	58,985	1064	
1834				

The vessels registered and built during the last three years were—

Years ending January.	Registered.			Built.	
	Vessels.	Tons.	Men.	Vessels.	Tons.
1833	216	20,250	1895	9	1465
1834	228	21,799	1978	6	972
1835	231	21,861	1975	6	842

The oyster trade of Jersey is considerable; it gives employment to 250 boats, and to 1,500 men, and 1,000 women and children: there were sent to the English markets—

In 1829 bushels, 239,120 1831, bushels, 217,676
1830 do. 212,056 1832, do. 163,240

The Exports of Jersey consist of live stock and provisions; during the four years ending with 1832, the number of cows exported was 5,756; and of bulls, 53. Pigs average 120 yearly. The corn exports are shewn elsewhere. Of potatoes, there were exported during the four years ending 1832, tons 134,341; of onions, 3,581 bushels; of apples, 327,044 bushels; of pears, 2,852 bushels; of grapes, 6,084 lbs.; of cider, 564,768 gallons; of butter, 107,997 lbs.; of lobsters, 1,090 dozen; bricks exported to the extent of 808,750 tale; of leather 134 tons; and 55,112 pair of shoes, and 4,282 pair of boots. The imports are chiefly British manufactures and colonial produce.

A most unjust outcry was recently raised against the channel islands of smuggling foreign corn into England duty free, under the cloak of its being the produce of the islands, and the allegation was gravely assigned as one of the main causes of the present agricultural distress in the United Kingdom, as if the whole importation from the Channel Islands (under 7,000 quarters), as well that grown on their soil, as that which paid duty as foreign grain, could affect the prices of *forty million quarters of corn*, the estimated consumption of the United Kingdom! The Board of Customs here unintentionally fostered the idea of foreign corn being transmitted from Jersey and Guernsey as of island growth; the Board looked at the amount of corn exported from—and the quantity grown in the islands,—and asserted that more was exported than was grown; they strangely overlooked the important fact, that a large proportion of the corn exported was declared to be foreign corn, and *paid duty in England as such;* and yet the Custom House Commissioners lent the sanction of their high name to the allegation that the Norman islanders were fraudulently availing themselves of the rights which their charters and sound policy give them.

The people of Jersey and Guernsey felt, as all honest men ought, highly indignant at an unjust charge being preferred against them by the London Custom House; they sent over several gentlemen as deputies to demand that inquiry to which they were entitled: a Committee of the House of Commons was appointed in June last; the Custom House Commissioners made a new investigation,—the error before alluded to was detected by the *exposé* of the deputies, and after hearing a Mr. Frean, from Plymouth, who had nothing but suppositions as to the appearance of the grain to offer in support of his charge,—to oppose which there were the strict regulations in the islands to prevent even the possibility of fraud, —oaths and affirmations being required of the grower, factor, and shipper; the chief authorities in the islands being directly compelled to allow no loop-hole for evasion; the Committee unanimously dismissed the charge, not only as trifling with the time of the country, but as perfectly untrue. Indeed, such has been the low price of corn in England of late years, that foreign corn has been practically excluded from our ports, whether coming from Dantzic, &c. through Jersey, or coming direct; while at the same time abundant harvests in the islands, and the extended application of scientific principles to agriculture has produced in the islands, as in England, heavy crops of grain, the surplus of which has been exported to the United Kingdom; but that surplus would scarcely be sufficient, as Mr. De Brock truly told the Committee, to make pap for the children of one of our large towns; indeed, the importation of the Channel Island corn has been principally for seed, its weight and quality rendering it a desirable change for our farmers. In 1832 Colonel Le Couteur, one of the most scientific and enterprizing agricultural gentlemen in Jersey grew 46½ cabots of wheat* on a vergée of land;

* *Comparative View of the Jersey Wheat Measure with that of England.*

65 cabots are equal to a load, or ton of 40 bushels Winchester measure.

32½	do.	20	do.
16¾	do.	10	do.
8⅜	do.	5	do.

The *cabot*, for all other grains as well as for potatoes, is one third larger

that wheat weighed 33 lbs. French per cabot, equal to 35⅞ lbs. English, and reckoning two cabots for the imperial bushel, more than 71 lbs. the imperial bushel, more than 61½ Winchester bushels of 60 lbs. per acre, reckoning 2¼ vergées to the acre; it should also be remarked, that a bushel of this wheat has been proved to possess more nutriment than nearly 1½ bushel of our common wheat.

The following shews the Guernsey exportations to England for the last six years, ending January 5 in each year:

Years.	WHEAT. Imperial Measure.	BARLEY. Imperial Measure.	Years.	WHEAT. Imperial Measure.	BARLEY. Imperial Measure.
	Quarters.	Quarters.		Quarters.	Quarters.
1830	255 3-8ths.	128	1833	31 6-8ths.	..
1831	777 5-8ths.	98	1834	1448 7-8ths.	14 6-8ths.
1832	184 4-8ths.	190 4-8ths.	1835	1387 2-8ths.	138 2-8ths.
				4085 3-8ths.	509 4-8ths.
		Average of six years		680 7-8ths.	94 7-8ths.

The Jersey exportations are not in my possession after a similar form; the following shows the quantity of wheat and barley Jersey grows, and its Imports and exports; which agrees with Mr. Weston's return to the Commissioners of His Majesty's Customs, dated 28 July, 1834:—

	Qrs.	Qrs.
Annual average quantity of Wheat grown in Jersey, in the five years ending 5th January, 1834	12,899	
Ditto ditto Barley ditto	3,227	
Ditto ditto Wheat imported	20,795	
Ditto ditto Barley ditto	3,680	
Add 2,218 cwt. Flour, ditto	630	
		41,231
Deduct exported to the Jersey Settlements in North America:		
Wheat, same average	3,300	
Barley, ditto	226	
Biscuit, 3,061 cwt., ditto	897	
	4,423	
Deduct further of Island growth, exported to England:		
Wheat, same average	1,611	
Barley, ditto	1	
Flour, 22 cwt.	6	
	1,618	
		6,041
Remain for the consumption of 40,000 souls, annually	Qrs.	35,190

than the above; a cabot of potatoes must be heaped up. The Jersey and Serk Vergée is=40 perch of 22 square feet=2,151½ yards=19,360 feet. (See Guernsey.)

The exportation from the island of Jersey for the year ending 5th January 1835 was,—

ISLAND PRODUCE.		FOREIGN PRODUCE.	
Wheat.	Barley.	Peas.	Biscuit.
Imperial Quarters.	Imperial Quarters.	Imperial Quarters.	Cwts.
3,767	32	30	133

The following is the Custom House return of the aggregate importations into this country for the last six years :—

Years.	WHEAT.			WHEAT FLOUR.			BARLEY.		
	Foreign, Paying Duty.	Produce of the Islands.	Total.	Foreign, Paying Duty in England.	Produce of the Islands.	Total.	Foreign, Paying Duty in England.	Produce of the Islands.	Total.
	Qrs.	Qrs.	Qrs.	Cwts.	Cwts.	Cwts.	Qrs.	Qrs.	Qrs.
1829	11,178	346	11,524	1,765	..	1,765	549	210	759
1830	16,590	1,708	18,298	1,244	..	1,244	60	144	204
1831	7,329	1,485	8,814	3,850	..	3,850	1,128	488	1,616
1832	..	1,939	1,939	1	215	216	—	—	—
1833	..	5,235	5,235	88	693	781	..	15	—
1834	..	5,860	5,860	713	..	713	..	171	171

The rent of the best land in Jersey is about 5*l.* per acre, and the average of good land throughout the island is somewhat upwards of 4*l.* The value of land is of course high, varying from 100*l.* to 150*l.* per acre.

The price of labour in Jersey per day has been, in

	1775	1792	1813	1833
	s. d.	*s. d.*	*s. d.*	*s. d.*
Master Carpenter	1 4½	.. ..	5 0	3 6
Journeyman do. .. .	1 0	.. ..	4 0	2 9
Carpenter's Apprentice ..	0 5	.. ..	1 6	1 3
Gardener (with Board) ..	0 5	.. ..	2 0	3 0
Thatcher	1 0	.. ..	4 0	4 0
Weeding Women (Board) ..	0 2½	.. ..	1 0	1 0
Mason Superintendant ..	1 3	1 10	5 0	3 6
Day Labourer (Board) ..	0 3	0 5	1 6	1 8

Some Frenchmen work for 1*s.* and French women for 10*d.* per day.

The foregoing details sufficiently illustrate the state of Jersey, and we may now momentarily glance at the smaller appendages of Alderney, Serk, Herm and Jethou.

Alderney lies to the N. E. of Guernsey about six leagues, and scarcely seven miles W. from Cape La Hogue; in length from N. E. to S. W. nearly four miles; in breadth one and a half, and in circumference about ten.

It shelves to the N. E. interrupted by deep vallies, bounded on the southern and western sides by cliffs from 100 to 200 feet high; and on the N. and E. extremities by lower cliffs intersected with small bays: the rocky scenery is in many places extremely bold and romantic. The strait which divides the island from Cape La Hogue in Normandy, called by the French '*Le Ras de Blanchart*,' and by the English, 'the Race of Alderney, is dangerous in stormy weather when the two currents meet, which at spring tides run six knots an hour. The passage termed the *swinge*, on the other side of the island, is no less dangerous. The whole island is beset with rocks, forming part of an extensive chain which reaches to the 'Caskets,' on which a lighthouse has been erected. The population is about 1,500, inhabiting 300 dwelling houses. Mr. Inglis stated the population of the parish of St. Anne at 1,100; the baptisms during the last 10 years at 295, and the deaths at 201, or 20 per annum on a population of 1,100, not quite two per cent. The following is a comparative statement of deaths occurring in a population of 1,100 during each ten years:—1 to 10 years, No. 36; 10 to 20 do. 16; 20 to 30 do. 16; 30 to 40 do. 16; 40 to 50 do. 20; 50 to 60 do. 21; 60 to 70 do. 15; 70 to 80 do. 40; 80 to 90 do. 16; 90 to 100 do. 5. The greatest number of deaths therefore takes place between 70 and 80, and as many die between 80 and 90 as in any 10 years between 10 and 40 years of age. This is the more remarkable, as the consumption of spirits in the island is stated to be upwards of 8,000 gallons per annum.

One half the island is in a good state of cultivation, and the remainder presents good food for sheep and cattle. There is a legislative assembly in the island, nearly similar to that of Guernsey, to whose jurisdiction Alderney is annexed. The island militia consists of about 200 men, with nine pieces of artillery and 70 artillerymen.

Serk lies about six miles E. of Guernsey, whose dependency it is. It is rather more than three miles in length, and scarcely, on an average, one in breadth. At one part, called the *Coupée*, the island is nearly divided into two portions (Great and Little Serk), being only connected by a high and narrow ridge, about 300 yards long, and not many feet wide.

Unlike the other Norman islands, which are of a shelving form, Serk is a table land, rising somewhat towards the N. W., but having no declivity to the sea, except a trifling descent at the N. extremity. The consequence is, that as the cliffs are from 1 to 200 feet high, there are only five landing places, and scarcely an entrance without the trouble of climbing. The population is about 500.

The two smallest islands, of Herm (Erme) and Jethou, lie about three miles E. of Guernsey, and are separated from each other by a narrow strait. They are chiefly used for the feeding of cattle and sheep. Herm is a favourite resort for conchologists.

In conclusion, I trust that no attempts will be made to deprive the Norman islanders of the immunities conferred on them by successive English monarchs throughout a period of five centuries, and which they have proved themselves so fully deserving of by their steady attachment and ardent loyalty to Britain.

CHAPTER IX.

THE ISLE OF MAN.

LOCALITY — HISTORY — GEOLOGY AND SOIL — CLIMATE — POPULATION — RELIGION, EDUCATION, AND THE PRESS — GOVERNMENT — FINANCES — COMMERCE — STAPLE PRODUCTS, &c. &c.

THE Isle of Man, or Mona's Isle, situate in St. George's Channel, or the Irish Sea, nearly equidistant from England, Ireland, Wales, and Scotland, between the parallels of 54.4 and 54.27 N. lat., and the meridians of 4.17 and 4.47 W. long. Maughold Head, the N. E. part of the island, is 30 miles distant from St. Bees in Cumberland; the point of Ayre, on the N. extremity of the island, is 16 miles from Burrow Head in Wigtonshire, Scotland; Peel Castle, on the W. side, is 27 miles from the North of Ireland; and the Calf of Man 45 ditto from Holyhead in North Wales.

The island is in length about 30 miles, from 10 to 12 in breadth, 70 in circumference, and with an area of 220 square miles.

As Man is not represented in the imperial parliament, a brief description of it will be required.* There is much dispute as to the origin of the name of the island; some suppose it originates from the Saxon word *mang* or *among*, used in reference to its situation among surrounding kingdoms; others suppose it to be derived from *Maime*, the sirname of St. Patrick, who, in his voyage from Liverpool in the year 444, landed on the island, and in three years converted the people from druidism to christianity. But the natives, who still call it Manning, have a tradition

that it received its appellation from a prince named Mananan, who is the hero of their fables.

By Cæsar it it was called *Mona* (now so styled in our records), by Ptolemy *Moneda*, and by Pliny *Monabia;* it was likewise called *Eubonia.* The early history of the island is involved in fable; the natives consider Mananan Ma Ler, son of the king of Ulster, and brother to Fergus the Second, who established the monarchy of Scotland, as the founder of their isle. In the 10th century a Danish prince named Orry conquered the Hebrides, and established his throne in the Isle of Man. The dynasty of Orry continued through several generations (Guthred, his son, built Castle Rushen, which remains a durable monument of the Danish style), but was finally put aside by Godred Crovana, from whose descendants it was conquered by Magnus of Norway, one of those Norwegians who for 500 years had spread devastation throughout Europe—given dukes to Normandy, kings to Sicily, Man, &c., and conquerors to England. In A.D. 1270, Mona's Isle was conquered by Alexander, king of Scotland; and for many years it was an arena for the contests of the English and Scotch, being five times subdued by either party, when it was ultimately surrendered by the Scottish Commissioners to Edward the First in 1289; mortgaged for seven years to the Bishop of Durham, who in 1377 obtained from Richard the Second a grant of it for life, and it was sold by the natural heir, to whom it reverted, in 1459, to the Earl of Wiltshire.

The island next became the property of Sir John Stanley (the ancestor of the Earl of Derby) in the sixth year of Henry IV. for his crushing the rebellion of Percy of Northumberland. For more than three centuries the Stanley family held possession of the island; but the title of *King of Man* was relinquished by the then Earl of Derby in 1504. During the Commonwealth, and after the Earl of Derby had been beheaded for his devoted attachment to the unfortunate monarch, Parliament granted the Isle to Lord Fairfax, but

on the accession of Charles II. it was restored to the then Earl of Derby, with all its regalities and privileges.

In 1735 on the decease of the 13th Lord of Man in the Stanley line, without issue, the inheritance devolved on the second Duke of Athol, who was descended from Lady Amelia Sophia, daughter of the seventh Earl of Derby.

As taxation extended in England the temptation to smuggling at the Isle of Man became great; and in 1726 engaged the attention of the Legislature; an act was then passed to purchase the sovereignty of the island; this was evaded by the Duke of Athol. In 1764 the question of revestment was revived, and the Lords of the Treasury offered again to purchase or threatened to adopt other measures, fearing which, the Duke and Duchess accepted £70,000, and £2,000 per ann. for their natural lives, in lieu of the assumption of sovereign rights.

In 1781, 1790 and 1805, the succeeding Duke of Athol moved, by petition to Parliament, claims for compensation; and after a powerful opposition, recovered a fourth of the net revenue of the island as a compensation. (see Finance Section); and in 1825 the sum of £417,144 was voted* to the Duke for the transfer of all his claims and rights to the British Government.

PHYSICAL ASPECT.—The island is divided into two distinct portions, the rocky and the alluvial. The former is the southern division of the island, and embraces fully two-thirds of the whole. In this portion the coasts are in general rocky and precipitous, and the interior is agreeably varied by hills, mountains and vallies. This division is subdivided by two great vallies into three portions. The northernmost is entirely mountainous and separated from the middle tract by a long valley extending across the greatest breadth of the island, and which was, doubtless, at some distant period, a passage of the sea, many relicts appertaining to the ocean

* It is thus stated in the Parliamentary estimates. In 1826, £150,000; in 1827, £134,200; in 1828, £132,944; total, £417,144.

having been found there. The middle tract containing gentler elevations, may be called an elevated plain. The third division is an island called the Calf, divided by a deep ravine from the main land, through which the sea runs with considerable velocity.

The northern or alluvial portion, which is the best wooded and most fertile, presents the general appearance of a cultivated plain, gently inclining from a ridge of sand hills which cut off the northernmost point (called the point of Ayre) to the foot of the mountains: containing in succession the following soils, viz. sand, rich mould, clay, marl and peat, each occupying a space of from one to two miles. It terminates at the sea by shelving shores or cliffs of sand.

One of the chief features are the number of streams, in which trout, salmon, and salmon trout abound: but no other fish, except eels in ponds and minnows. The pearl muscle, formerly fished here for the sake of its pearls, is found in some of the streams, but it seems to form a distinct variety. Beaches of pebbles are accumulated at the mouths of several of these streams, which being round, not flat, must have been formed by the sea.

The mountains are—Snafield, North Barroole, Pennypot, and Greeba. On the south, Barroole and Brada Head. This ridge of hills, running from S. W. to N. E. divides the island into two parts nearly equal. Snafield being 580 yards above the level of the sea, is the loftiest, and from the top of it, there is a commanding view of the mountains of Scotland, from Ayrshire to Dumfries; of those in Cumberland and Westmoreland, in England; of Snowdon and Holyhead, in Wales; and of the Morne mountains, in Ireland.

The scenery of the island is very varied, and some of the landscape views are interesting. Some places have a fertile, luxuriant appearance, and others are sterile, wild, and romantic. The island is not sufficiently ornamented with trees to give it a pleasing, rich aspect, but the frequent change of hill and dale compensates in some degree for this want. The chief towns will be subsequently treated of.

GEOLOGY.*—Boulders of granite, sienite, porphyry and quartz, are distributed over the surface of the island from N. to S. The origin of the former is obscure: but the quartz is mixed with such blocks of clay-slate and mica-slate as form the present strata of the island. The granite boulders are most numerous, and present many varieties, all of which are different from the little granite which is found in situ. As they come from the N. and N.W., they may be referred to the granite formations of Arran and the Highlands. The force of the great wave which transported them must have been prodigious, since enormous masses are found high up the sides of one of the loftiest mountains.

There is a Druidical circle formed of boulders of sienite near the Bishop's residence, on the N. W. side of the island. This in all probability came from Criffel.

Rocks of Man.—1. Granite. Probably the foundation of the island is granite; but it has been found in only two small spots, one of which is now lost. Its predominant mineral is felspar, and but very little quartz. The decomposition of the felspar causes the decomposition of the whole mass when exposed, and a fine powder results, which is sold for polishing iron.

2. Mica-slate. It passes into and is mixed with the clay-slate, so that together they in reality constitute but one formation, most likely resting on granite. To consider, first, the varieties and structure separately, and afterwards as a single formation. In some of the mountains it is but a degree removed from quartz rock: consisting of masses of quartz, with collections of plates of a beautiful white silvery semi-opaque mica interposed. This by degrees passes into the more usual forms of the rock. Yellow mica is scarce, and occurs only in small grains. The highest mountain in

* I have to acknowledge some useful information received from Archdeacon Philpot, and to express my thanks for the Christian spirit in which it was communicated.

That promised by the Governor and Bishop did not arrive in time for publication.

the island (Snafield, 2,004 feet), is of mica-slate. It is round at the top, and grassy to the summit. The base of this mountain is rich in metalliferous veins, which are worked at a very great profit to the miners. They consist of Galena, copper pyrites, black jack, and carbonate of copper in a matrix of quartz and earthy matter. The three first are profitable, but the chief search is for the Galena. It generally occurs massive; sometimes granular. Crystals cubical. The lead of this ore is the richest in silver of any in Britain, yielding from 90 to 130 oz. silver in the ton.* The copper pyrites is also an object of export: it contains about 5 oz. of silver in the ton. The zinc blende or black jack is seldom crystallized here. It used to be sent to Bristol and sold at £5 per ton to the manufacturers, but there is now a tax on it which exceeds the price. But the extent of micaceous schist is small when compared with the clay-slate, of which most part of the larger portion of the island may be said to consist. It presents many varieties from nearly a compact to a fossile state and whetstone. 1. The first is a rock in which the stratification is rendered almost obsolete, and when seen, the surfaces of the seams are often polished and shining with a semi-metallic appearance. This is only found towards the junction with the transition grey wacke rocks. 2. By far the most common variety is a grey stone distinctly stratified, and breaking down into massive laminæ, often very thick, with numerous angles. It is generally used in building. 3. The third variety is found only at Spanish Head, the southern termination of the island. It is fibrous, and may be raised in long beams of 20 feet. It is used for lintels and gate-posts, and sometimes chimney-pieces. Dr. M'Culloch says it is flexible, but Mr. Forbes is not aware of such being the fact. 4. Roofing slate; not very abundant, nor very good. 5. Found on Mount Pelier, of a yellow or white colour, used by the peasants as a sharpening stone.

* The 'Wheal Brothers' and 'Wheal Sisters' Mine, now working in Cornwall, is yielding a greater proportion of the finest silver than any South American ore has been known to furnish.

6. Drawing slate or black chalk at the junction of the red sand-stone near Peel. 7. A rare kind found in a quarry in Braddan above the Union mills, of a vermillion colour and micaceous appearance, soiling the fingers, and very fissile.

The clay-slate of the island is intersected in all directions by veins of quartz, which, when the enclosing slate has decomposed remain entire, producing the abundance of quartz pebbles which are observed. The Foxdale mines are in this soil: lead and copper are the objects of search, but the former is not so rich in silver as the Laxy mines.

The primitive schistose formation, consisting of the two rocks whose varieties have just been mentioned (mica-slate and clay-slate) forms, as before stated, the greatest part of the island. Perhaps it rests on granite, and is followed by the transition schists. It includes all the mountains of the island, and expands over 24 out of the 30 miles which forms the length of the island. The schistose country does not often extend to the sea, but at Spanish head it forms the coast, presenting perpendicular precipices more than 300 feet high. These stupendous rocks are rent in all directions for a distance inland, and immense fragments appear in the act of falling. The clifts extend many hundred yards, and the chasms are very deep. The age in which this great convulsion took place is unknown, but one clue is afforded by the circumstance of a Druidical monument occupying the summit of one at present inaccessible. *Transition.* Resting on the primitive schistose, is the transition schistose formation, the members of which are grey wacke and grey wacke slate. 1. The grey wacke, from its distinct conglomerate form, is rather rare in the island, the slate greatly predominating. 2. The grey wacke slate is much finer grained, and varies in its appearance. It is generally distinctly stratified, and the strata are often contorted in a very singular manner. Near Peel it has almost the appearance of basaltic columns, from its black colour and stratification. It merges often into flinty slate. Strings of metallic ores abound in this rock. In it are the lead mines of Breda, affording galena and copper pyrites.

Ores of bismuth occasionally occur, and here as elsewhere splendid specimens of crystallized quartz. The transition schistose strata lie immediately on the primary schists, and are next to them in extent. This formation constitutes the greater part of the rocky sea coast of the island, encircling it, with a few interruptions, from Peel to Ramsey by the S. The outline of this coast is rocky, precipitous, bold and picturesque, but the clifts are seldom more than 200 feet in height. Caves abound formed by action of the sea, and in them grow abundantly the Asplenium marinum and Adiantum uniforme. The clifts themselves are studded with little beds of the Scylla Verna, and in a few places the stunted oak climbs like ivy. These steep sides are the haunts of sea birds and falcons, who rear their young in the crevices of the rocks. In no case does the formation extend any distance inland.

The secondary rocks are old red sand-stone and secondary lime-stone. Old red sand-stone occurs near Peel, forming a belt along the western coast of about two miles. It rests immediately on the transition schists, and at the junction a singular and disturbed appearance presents itself in both rocks, as if caused by the contiguity of an ignigenous rock. No such circumstance however appears to account for the phenomenon, and we must suppose that either the fundamental granite exists at no great depth, or that a vein of trap exists in the vicinity unexplored. The sand-stone itself is of a dark purple colour; rarely whitish. It sometimes presents itself in the form of a coarse conglomerate, but mostly has a fine but crumbling grain, and forms but an indifferent building stone. Of it Peel Castle is built. The last of the stratified rocks in the island is secondary lime-stone. It forms an extent of several miles of coast on each side of Castle town; the outline of which is flat and shelving: of mineralogical characters the bed presents four varieties. 1. Of a blackish colour, hard, and polishes. The steps at the main entrance of St. Paul's are made from this. 2. Coarser, of a blueish grey, with few organic remains (zoophytes). Much used in building and making lime. The

seams of the strata being parallel, blocks of any size may be raised. Castle Rushen was built of this stone by Guthred, in the tenth century, and is almost as perfect now as when first built. 3. Of a light grey, almost wholly composed of organic remains, shells chiefly. Edward Forbes, Esq. a young Manxman of very great promise as a naturalist, collected 30 species from this rock, chiefly bivalves; the greater number belonging to the genus terebratula; also spirifices, producta, &c. The unilocular univalves are few. Mr. Forbes found but three species, of which one is peculiar to mountain limestone, &c. &c. 4. A yellow or whitish grey, rarely containing organic remains, effervescing feebly with acids, and in all respects the magnesian limestone of mineralogists. On the limestone soil (and there alone) flourishes in abundance the rare plant erodium maritimum. It is difficult to arrange the geognostical position of the Manx limestones.

The last variety of the secondary limestone is perhaps the most singular rock in the world in a geological point of view. It is not a distinct bed resting on the dark stratified limestone, but mixed with it, without regard to position, and with very few traces of stratification. That its chrystalline and unstratified structure is the result of a violent igneous action, is evident at the junction with the slate, which is greatly disturbed and reddened, &c. Between Poolvash and Scarlet some interesting phenomena appear; veins of trap, from two to six feet broad, break through the dark grey limestone, without much regard to any particular direction, and bearing, impressed around them, marks of their former state of fusion.

It is probable that a submarine bed of limestone exists, resting on the Peel sandstone of the same stratum as the Castletown bed, since fragments but little rolled are often cast ashore on that coast.

Alluvia.—The soil in the south, or rocky division of the island is a light clay, fertile, formed by the decomposition of clay slate. The northern division is entirely alluvial, consisting of a sandy soil, with curraghs or peat mosses interspersed,

but chiefly lying at the bases of the mountains; forming a beautiful country, though barren of growing timber, and well adapted to corn, but in general badly cultivated.

Here is found the *fossil elk*. First, of its æra. The remains of this gigantic stag (*cervus giganteus*) are found embedded in marl beneath the peat bogs of Ireland; in Forfarshire, Scotland; in England; near the Rhine, and the Isle of Man; the skeleton having occurred only in Ireland and the Isle of Man. Its specific characters are — horns of very large dimensions; broad palm, with snags on both borders, fewer than in the elk's brow; first snag of the palm longest; skeleton resembling the stag's, but in size approaching the elk. The species is not identical with any now in existence. Opinions differ as to æra. Some attribute an *antediluvian*, (or rather diluvian) and some a *post diluvian* existence to the animal. Cuvier and Buckland support its diluvial origin, but they did not examine it in situ. Archdeacon Maunsel was in the island, and he supposes 'they must have been destroyed by some overwhelming deluge; that they were probably drowned upon the hills, where they had taken refuge as the waters rose, and that as they subsided, they were drawn from thence into the valleys where they are found; that the agitation of the waters had occasioned such a dispersion of the bones, when the ligatures dissolved, as to account for their scattered state; and that the deposit of shell marl, with which he supposed the waters to have been turbid, had so completely protected them from atmospheric influence as to prevent their subsequent decomposition.' The soil in which the remains he examined were, consisted—1. peat, one foot; 2. shell marl, from $1\frac{1}{2}$ to $2\frac{1}{2}$ feet, containing fresh water shells; 3. blue clay. The bones were found scattered, embedded within the marl and clay, or at various depths in the clay itself. This and other theories, assigning a diluvial origin to the fossil elk, are apparently plausible, but facts (as reported by Mr. E. Forbes) militate against them. He says, '1. No inundation could have produced the phenomena stated in these theories, save the great geological deluge, said to be

anterior to the creation of man, and not identical with the Mosaic deluge. In no case have human remains been found in diluvial strata; and the clay and marl referred to by Archdeacon M. are evidently alluvial.' But the great argument against the fossil elk being a diluvial relict, is the occurrence of the traces of human action along with it. In one case, a human body in good preservation, clothed in garments of hair, was found in Ireland in the same stratum. Arch. Brit. vol. 7. Morne.

A head of the elk was discovered in Germany in the same drain with urns and stone hatchets. A rib presented by the archdeacon himself to the Royal Society, Dublin, had a perforation, having all the characteristic marks of being made with an arrow. Not long ago a canoe was dug out of the peat bogs in Ireland, and many other relics of an ancient people have been found. These prove the contemporaneous existence of man and the fossil animal, and destroy the notion of its diluvian origin, which is also confuted by the fact that the marl in which the remains are found in the Isle of Man, rests on the diluvial detritus and boulders. So that the animal was post diluvian, query then at what period did it exist, and its extinction occur?

1. Man inhabited Ireland and the other western countries at the time of its extinction, therefore its destruction was probably posterior to the æra of the Mosaic deluge.

2. Man, in those countries at the period alluded to, seems to have subsisted and clothed himself by the produce of the chase, as the Indians of America now do.

The geological structure of the country in which these remains are found in this island, are:—Uppermost, a bed of peat, from four to six feet deep. In this bed occur the roots and trunks of trees; fir, hazel and oak, in the state termed *black oak*;* at present the living oak is rare here, but the number of these relics of former forests show that it formerly flourished in the Isle of Man luxuriantly. It is probable that the period of their existence is not older than the æra of the Romans in Britain, because, when the Druids were driven from their

* This is also found at a considerable depth in the Irish peat bogs.

sanctuary in Anglesea, they fled to Mann, where they preserved their sacred rites for some time after the extinction of their order in the neighbouring islands. In their time we may believe these trees flourished; and the wild legends speak of the land as green with forests. Beneath the peat is a thin stratum of gravelly sand, from a few inches to three feet thick. In this sand are no traces of organic life. This cannot be the debris of the neighbouring hills (as Dr. Hebbert states), for it would not have been so uniformly spread, and would have consisted of quartz and clay slate, whereas it contains particles of other rocks not found in the island. Dr. M'Culloch looks on it as a diluvial deposit. Beneath the sand is a bed of marl, varying from 10 to 14 feet in thickness, and here occur the remains of the elk. It differs from the marl of the Irish and other localities for the elk, in being a *salt* water deposit, which fact has been overlooked by all geologists who wrote on the subject, but it appears by examining it in situ. It is shell marl, and though the shells are mutilated in general, they are sometimes perfect; and many well marked specimens have been found by Mr. E. Forbes, of the following species, all natives at this time of the Irish sea. Telleia saledula (frequent); crassina Scotica; Venus venacosa; matrix glaucena; turritella teretre; dentutem eulules. Scattered through the marl are also lumps of chalk, but no fossils of the elk have been found. It is difficult to account for the presence of these fragments of chalk, as there is no chalk formation on the borders of the Irish sea. The animals are generally found in a congregated state, frequently in an erect position, and the people who have dug them out, say, their noses, when thus erect, are elevated as high as possible. ' Mr. Forbes concludes that a herd has been suddenly surrounded by the materials in which the specimens lay, so as to have been enclosed and preserved in living attitudes. An inundation of water and gravel, or sand and mud, would explain this, when favoured by peculiar circumstances in the form of the land; while the preservation of the erect posture, no less than the very singular position of the nose, proves the operation to have been gradual, the animal's last efforts having been those of keeping

its head as long as possible above the flood. See M'Culloch's Organic Remains, Ed. Encl. vol. 15. 727. The theoretical idea of Dr. M'Culloch, that this inundation is identical with the great deluge of geologists, is disproved by the circumstance of the diluvial detritus forming a separate stratum below the marl. The following suggestions are offered :—

1. That the animal existed in the Isle of Man previous to the Druidical occupation of it, and was extinct also before that event.

2. It is probable that the island was uninhabited at the time of its existence, since no relics of the human race are found along with the remains, &c.

3. The Manx elk was probably contemporaneous with the Irish elk, and of the same species.

4. That the Manx elk was destroyed by a partial irruption of the sea in a very turbid and agitated state, and so sudden as to prevent the escape to the hills. Earthquakes seem to have taken place in these parts, &c.

5. The elks herded together in the marshy spots.

The foregoing observations are given with a view to promote further enquiry on this interesting subject.

CHIEF TOWNS.—*Douglas* derives its name from the junction of two rivers, the Dhoo and the Glass, which disembogue themselves into the sea at this place. From its favourable situation for commerce, continual intercourse with England, and being principally the residence of strangers, it has obtained a decided superiority over the other towns. The seat of Government is at Castletown, about 10 miles distant, and the Courts of Law are generally held there; but trade and commerce have rendered this the principal town in the island. A century ago it was little better than a fishing town, composed of a group of clay-built cottages. It now contains 800 dwelling-houses, occupied by 1,500 families, and a population of 7,000.

The approach to Douglas is picturesque; the bay forms a semi-circle of more than three miles, and is sheltered from all winds but the S.E.; and on opening it, the prospect is very pleasing, from the variety of the scenery, the number of cot-

tages, gentlemen's seats rising in view in all directions, and from the magnificent appearance of Castle Mona.* Near the southern extremity of the bay the town rises in a triangular form; its summit commanding a fine view of the neighbouring country and sea, with the distant towering mountains of Lancashire and Cumberland.

Castletown, being the residence of the Lieutenant-Governor, and the place where the courts of law are usually held, is considered the metropolis of the island. It contains 348 dwelling-houses, inhabited by 469 families, and has a population of 2,062. The castle, which overlooks the country for many miles, was built in 960, by Guttred, a Danish prince, the second of the race of Orrys, and before artillery was used, was impregnable. The building is remarkably solid; has sustained several sieges, and with its battlements and towers, still retains the gloomy and formidable grandeur of Gothic architecture. It is said to be a striking resemblance of the Castle of Elsinore: it is surrounded by a stone glacis, supposed to have been built by Cardinal Wolsey, and it has lately been converted into a prison.

The other towns or villages are Peel, Ramsey, &c. the ruins around which are interesting to the tourist.

Population.—We have no data of the early settlement of the island, or the progress of its population, which it is probable are of Celtic origin. The Manx language is still pretty general, and in most of the parish churches the service is performed alternately with the English.

Hollinshed, who wrote in the year 1584, says 'there were formerly 1,300 families in this island, but now scarcely half that number.' In the year 1667, this island contained 2,531 men between the ages of 16 and 60 years.

The population in 1726 was 14,027. The number of inhabitants returned by the clergy in answer to the Bishop of Man's twelfth article of visitation in 1757 was 19,144. The returns made in pursuance of the requisition of Governor

* Castle Mona, on which the Duke of Athol expended £35,000, is now an hotel; one of the finest, cheapest, and best regulated I ever was in.

Smith in 1784 were 24,924. The inhabitants had increased in 1791 to 27,913; and the census of 1831 makes the number 40,985, as follows:—

Towns and Parishes.	Inhabited Houses.	Families.	Houses Building.	Houses not Inhabited.	Families in			Males.	Females.	Total.
					Agriculture.	Trade, &c.	All Others.			
Douglas ..	794	1458	9	12	40	455	963	2985	3801	6786
Castletown	318	469	2	30	19	209	241	961	1101	2062
Ramsey....	303	419	6	16	1	172	246	765	989	1754
Peel	288	412	0	30	7	146	259	787	942	1729
German....	295	314	7	27	216	57	41	907	884	1791
Patrick	390	412	5	42	238	63	111	1096	1099	2195
Marown...	242	258	5	12	153	57	48	581	635	1216
Conchan ..	251	276	1	19	135	44	97	705	777	1482
Braddan ..	318	340	1	8	255	58	27	925	1002	1927
Santon	138	145	1	8	107	28	10	398	400	798
Malew	482	519	3	44	238	93	188	1342	1436	2778
Arbory	261	271	3	4	136	62	73	750	761	1511
Rushen	520	560	6	22	182	111	267	1363	1369	2732
Michael....	246	260	1	20	113	8	139	612	705	1317
Jurby.....	198	199	1	2	177	8	14	526	571	1097
Ballaugh ..	279	279	0	6	89	100	90	685	726	1411
Bride.....	183	190	1	6	102	34	54	536	503	1039
Ayre	386	412	3	12	182	136	94	928	1051	1979
Maughold..	259	313	2	3	104	54	155	657	684	1341
Lonan	318	350	4	14	180	66	104	917	906	1823
Andreas....	395	403	1	15	379	15	9	1122	1095	2217

The inhabitants are employed in agriculture, in the herring fishery, and in manufacturing. Until lately agriculture has been almost totally neglected, and the produce was insufficient for the place; it is now however rapidly increasing.

RELIGION.—The Established Church is the principal creed, but there are several Dissenters and some few Roman Catholics. The Episcopal Church contains 17 parishes, and seven chapels of ease. The diocesan is styled Bishop of Sodor and Man.*

* Various conjectures have been made respecting the origin of the name Sodor and Man. Camden derives it from a small island near Castletown, in which Pope Gregory IV. erected an episcopal see; but is uncertain to what place he referred. Buchanan, speaking of the Isle of Man, says that there was a town in it called Sodor, in which the Bishop of the Isles had his residence; and Archbishop Spottiswood mentions that in the Isle of Man a stately church was erected in honour of our Saviour, called Sodorense Fanum—that is, the temple of our Saviour, and hence it is that the Bishops are styled 'Sodorenses Episcopi.' Beatson conjectures that it is a corruption of the Greek word for the Saviour, to whom the cathedral was

There is an archdeacon, two vicars general, and the episcopal registrar. The clergy are supported by one-third of the tithes, and the small livings derive aid from the impropriate fund, which has been lately recovered from the Earl of Derby, and laid out in the purchase of lands in the Island. Through the influence and exertions of the present bishop, seven new churches have been erected, and the interests of religion are carefully attended to.

EDUCATION is here, as well as in other parts of the world, in rapid progress; not merely in elementary schools, but in a spacious and classic structure, entitled King William's College, recently erected under the auspices of the bishop, out of the academic fund. There are now at the Isle of Man upwards of 162 English, Irish, and Scotch youths at this noble establishment (independent of the island youths), which is furnished with able and pious masters, and promises to be one of the best seminaries in the united kingdom. The college has the power of granting degrees in divinity for the service of the island.

THE PRESS.—There are three newspapers at Douglass, unstamped, well advertized, and as ably conducted as any of the English provincial journals.

FORM OF GOVERNMENT AND COURTS OF LAW.—I am induced to give the following account of its Government, because it is so different from the other possessions of the British Crown.

A Danish prince, Orry, having, as before mentioned, conquered this island in the tenth century, gave directions to the inhabitants of Man to elect 16 representatives, and the

dedicated; and others imagine that as the Norwegians were accustomed to speak of the Hebrides as Northern and Southern, and the islands classed under the latter name belonging to this diocese, together might have given rise to the title of Sodor. The probable opinion is, that after the Norwegian conquest of the Isle of Man and the Western Islands of Scotland, that the Bishopricks were united with the title of Sodor and Man, which union continued until the English gained possession of Mona in 1333, and then the jurisdiction of the Bishop ceased in the Hebrides, the revenues were not collected by him, and the title was all that he retained.

Western Islands 8, to assist him in the government. These representatives were called Taxiaxes, signifying pledges or hostages. We are without information as for what period they were elected, by whom they were chosen, and the power with which they were invested. From the year 1066 to 1270, a period of 200 years, their labours appear not to have been required; for the Norwegian who had conquered the island claimed the landed property as his own, and granted it at pleasure to his followers. Probably the House of Keys, during the dominion of the Norwegians and Scots, had its jurisdiction confined to the determining of the laws, and to presenting petitions for new regulations, until the grant of this island to the Stanley family. Under this grant the territory was a fief separate from the kingdom, but dependent on the crown of England, and the Lords Proprietors were feudatory princes: they possessed the prerogatives, and for several generations retained the title of royalty; they had the sovereign controul of the government in every instance: they enacted laws, appointed at pleasure all the principal officers employed in public affairs, had the patronage of the bishopric and of all ecclesiastical benefices. They drew a tax from the country by rents, services, and casual dues, and afterwards by customs and other imposts. They exercised an appellative jurisdiction over all civil causes, and granted pardon to those who had been convicted of capital offences. The executive power therefore was in their hands in the largest sense. The people were the subjects of feudal dominion, but on various occasions they strenuously asserted their rights; and the authority of the Lord Proprietor became by degrees more and more effectually subjected to those forms by which the security of liberty required that it should be circumscribed. The House of Keys was the organ by which the people acted.

During the 15th and 16th centuries there occur a variety of rules and orders by very different powers and combinations of powers. Some of them are ordinances of the governor and other chief officers. Some of them are edicts by

the Lord Proprietor, and others are orders by the commissioners, being mere entries in the Rolls without any attestation.

With few exceptions, in which the commands of the proprietor were again obtruded on the people as laws, the Governor and other chief officers, and the Keys with the Lord, have, since the beginning of the seventeenth century, been invariably the ordaining power in legislation. But it was not until the Act of Settlement, which was obtained by the influence of the venerable Bishop Wilson, that the landed property of the inhabitants was secured, and that they possessed any other character but that of tenants or vassals.

Since the Act of Revestment, His Britannic Majesty has the appointment of all the officers; and his power is delegated to the Lieut-Governor, who is aided by a Council, which at present consists of the Receiver General, the Clerk of the Rolls, the Water Bailiff, the Attorney General, the Bishop, the Archdeacon, his Official, and the two Vicars General.

The House of Keys, which has both a legislative and judicial character, consists of twenty-four of the principal commoners of the Island, or, as they were anciently termed, the worthiest men of the land, from their intelligence, influence, and possessions. Bishop Wilson supposes that this name was given to them from their unlocking the difficulties of the law; for they were joined with the Deemsters, or to Judges, in determining the meaning of the ancient laws, and in applying them to difficult cases. For a considerable period the manner of supplying any vacancy has been by the House of Keys presenting to the Governor the names of two persons eligible for filling that situation, and he nominates one of them, who takes the oath and his seat. The situation is for life, except in cases of criminal conduct, resignation, or the acceptance of any place that entitles him to a seat in the Council. The requisite qualifications are, the possession of landed property, and having attained the age of 21; foreigners are eligible to be appointed.

The Deemster's Court is held once a week for the despatch of ordinary business, and on some particular occasions oftener. Each Deemster has his own district and court, in which he is sole judge, and has full power to determine all matters brought before him for his decision. In his Court he hears all claims for debts to any amount, and determines all disputes respecting lands, contracts, and engagements. He also takes cognizance of all assaults and battery; issues his warrant to summon six men to be a jury to take inquest of a felony. Trespass juries, summoned by his authority, to examine and to estimate the damage done, consist only of four persons living in the parish where the injury is sustained. The jurisdiction of both the Deemsters is the same, and each exercises his authority in his own district, the one in the north and the other in the south.

The Court of Chancery is held eight times in the year. The Governor sits chancellor, and is assisted by the Deemsters and other chief officers.

The Court of Exchequer is generally held immediately after the former, and the Governor, as chancellor, sits as sole judge, but is assisted by the Deemsters. The jurisdiction of this court embraces all matters relating to the revenues, &c. Prosecutions are carred on in this Court for the recovery of the penalties incurred by frauds on the Customs. A criminal jurisdiction is also exercised over every species of injury, which subjects the offender to the payment of a fine.

The Common Law Courts are held at different places for different sheadings. The Island is divided into six sheadings: — Glenfaba, Michael, Ayre, Garff, Middle, and Rushen. Glenfaba includes the parishes of Patrick and German; Michael—those of Michael, Ballaugh, and Jurby; Ayre—Andreas, Bride, and Lezayre; Garff—Maughold and Lonan; Middle—Conchan, Braddan, Marown, and Santon; Rushen—Malew, Arbory, and Rushen. These Courts were formerly held in the months of May and October. At Peeltown for the sheadings of Glenfaba, Michael, and Ayre. At

Douglas for Garff sheading. And at Castletown for the sheadings of Middle and Rushen. The jurisdiction of this Court extends to the presentments of nuisances by the grand inquest, which consisted of 12 men taken out of each sheading, and who were sworn to determine all such matters as came legally before them. All claims to estates, and all personal actions for the recovery of damages are tried in this Court before a jury. The Deemsters administer the oath in the vernacular language, deliver the charge, and receive the verdict. From the judgment of a court of common law, a traverse now lies in the first instance to the House of Keys in their judicial character, and they possess the high power of affirming, reversing, or altering a verdict at common law. The appeals before different tribunals are according to the court in which the cause was tried. Appeals from all juries, except for felony, are brought before a traverse jury, from them to the Keys, then to the Governor, and from his decision to the King in Council, which is final.

The Court of General Goal Delivery.—There is no trial in this court but by a jury, and the culprit must have been previously tried by a jury of six men of the sheading to which he belongs, and who had declared that the evidence adduced was sufficient to put him on his trial for the felony, and his final doom is fixed in this court by a jury of twelve. The usual mode of selecting the jury was admirably adapted to do justice to the accused. Four men were summoned from each parish in the Island to attend the trial, and as the list of each parish was read, he had power of challenging any of them whom he judged incompetent; and thus the jury of 12 which was empannelled was chosen by the prisoner from the 68 men summoned from the different parishes. When the jury was sworn to try the felony, the Attorney General on behalf of the Crown, examined the witnesses, and the accused made his defence. When the jury returned to deliver the verdict, one of the Deemsters asked the foreman whether the ecclesiastics who belonged to the council could remain in the court; and if he answered that they could not,

they withdrew; and upon the jury declaring the prisoner guilty, sentence of death was pronounced on him by one of the judges. By a Bill which has lately passed the insular legislature the power of challenge has been placed under considerable limitation. This Court is usually held twice in the year.

The Ecclesiastical Courts are held by the Bishop, or his Vicars General, for one-half of the year; and by the Archdeacon, or his Official, for the other half. These courts have more extensive powers than the clerical tribunals in England, for it belongs to them not only to determine the validity of wills, and to grant administration, but to try all causes concerning legacies and debts within a year and a day from the probate of the will; and all suits against executors and administrators might be prosecuted within two years of the cause of the action. For various offences the parties might be confined in the ecclesiastical prison, which was a subterraneous vault in Peel Castle, until a jury of six men was empannelled to examine if they should be delivered to the civil power for further trial and punishment. An appeal may be made from these Courts to the Archbishop of York in all spiritual affairs, but in all others to the Governor.

The Vicars General hold a Court every Friday. The Consistorial Court is held on the last Thursday of every month, and the clergy are annually assembled in convocation at Bishop's Court.

The High Bailiffs, by the Statute of 1777, were appointed in the four market towns of the Island, and are invested with authority to hear and determine all causes under 40 shillings. They are the magistrates of the town, have to maintain peace, and to apprehend offenders.

The military strength of the Island consists of about 100 regular soldiers, generally from one of the regiments serving in Ireland.

FINANCE.—The revenue arising to the Stanley family as lord proprietor, from the duties on exports and imports, the rental of lands, and the manorial rights, amounted to 1,400*l.*

Manks currency. The last Earl of Derby farmed the Customs to a merchant in Liverpool for 2,500*l.* per annum; and when the smuggling trade was carried on extensively, the Duke of Athol obtained 6,000*l.* annually from a small duty levied on the goods imported.

The following abstract of the revenue for ten years previously to the sale of the island, states the average of each year at 7,293*l.*

	Income for Ten Years.			Average per Ann.		
	£.	s.	d.	£.	s.	d.
Landed Revenue	13981	4	1	1398	3	5
Clear Revenue of the Customs	64217	0	5¾	6421	14	0½
Clear Revenue for Herrings	1258	8	10	125	16	11
Felons' Goods, Waifs, Forfeitures, Strays, Wrecks, Fines, &c.	1042	3	3¾	104	4	4
Clear Revenue of the Impropriate Tithes	2305	0	4½	230	10	0½
Clear Revenue of the Abbey Temporalities	1217	10	0	121	15	0
Income of Land in the hands of the Lord of Man	1063	19	5¼	106	7	11
Manks	£85085	6	6½	£8508	10	8
British	£72930	5	6	£7293	0	6⅓

The revenues given up to England for the sum of 70,000*l.* were only those of the second and third heads, amounting to 5,612*l.* 3*s.* 8*d.* British per annum. It does not clearly appear by what authority these dues were collected for the benefit of the lord proprietor, but they have been abolished since the revestment; and duties are levied on debenture goods imported from England and landed at Douglas. The quantity of rum, brandy, gin, &c. allowed to be imported is limited.

The Commissioners of Customs are authorised to grant licenses for the importation of wine, brandy, geneva, rum, tea, coffee, and tobacco, in British built vessels, of not less than 50 tons burthen:—

Quantity admitted.—Wines, 110 tuns; brandy, 10,000 gals. Geneva, 10,000 do.; rum, 60,000 do.; bohea tea, 50,000 lb.; green tea, 5,000 do.; coffee, 6,000 do.; tobacco, 60,000 do.

Duties Levied.—French wine, per tun of 252 galls. 16*l.*; brandy, per gall. 4*s.* 6*d.*; Geneva, 4*s.* 6*d.*; rum, 3*s.*; bohea tea, per lb. 6*d.*; green tea, 1*s.*; tobacco, 1*s.* 6*d.*

The Receiver General collects all the duties of the Customs, pays the salaries of the law and custom-house officers, and remits the surplus to the Lords of the Treasury.

The revenue of the island, from the revestment until 1792, was fully equal to the expenditure, and at that period Commissioners were appointed by the British Government to ascertain the real state of the island and to investigate the claims of the Duke of Athol. Since that time the whole revenue of the island has been placed under the management of the Collector of the Customs in Douglas, who also holds the office of Receiver General. The revenue collected at the Isle of Man, for the year ending 5th January, 1835, was 25,903*l.*

The second branch of the revenue arises from the harbour dues, which are collected from the vessels which are employed in carrying on trade, or take the benefit of the harbours in boisterous weather.

[About 25,000*l.* were voted by the British Parliament for building the new pier at Douglas.]

The third branch of the revenue arising from internal taxes, levied by the authority of the Manks legislature. forms the high road fund, and is appropriated for building bridges, for making, altering, and repairing the roads. The number of quarterlands in the manors and baronies is about 771, and the proprietors of every one of these may be called upon for 12 men to the public road every year. The occupiers of inferior holdings, called cottages and intacks are stated at 2,700, and they have to find three, six, or twelve men, according to the amount of the quit-rent which they paid.

The fourth branch of the revenue is raised by tithes, for the support of the clergy of the established religion.

The distribution of tithes. At present the division is threefold. The bishop receives one-third, the lord proprietor another, and the remaining share belongs to the incumbent for his salary. The tithes are divided into great and small; and in 1643, when the exorbitant demands of the clergy were resisted, and fixed by the representatives of the people and the decision of the lord proprietor, these were commuted for the following sums:—One milch cow, 4*d.*; eight milch sheep, 2*d.*; four milch goats the same; some other small tithes had been previously commuted.

The great tithes are mostly taken in kind, but in some places they are farmed to proctors. Some estates are tithe free, having been formerly purchased from one of the lord proprietors, who was authorised by an Act of Parliament to dispose of them, and there are other estates which only pay a small modus in lieu of payment in kind.

As there are no funds for building places of worship, an Act of the legislature of the island is requisite to erect one in any parish: it is customary to name the amount required, and the manner in which it is to be raised: but if the place is only to be repaired, the churchwardens convene the inhabitants, and a majority of them decide on the expediency of it, and the money requisite for defraying the expences is levied from the inhabitants in proportion to their rental.

The commerce of the island is principally that of its herring fisheries, which I understand has of late years diminished—the inhabitants devoting more of their attention to agriculture. The island was at one period celebrated for its linen manufactures, and some flax is still woven. There are some rich lead mines at work, and it is probable the mineralogical treasures of the island have not yet been explored. Silver ore of a rich quality has been found.

The lead ore imported into the United Kingdom from the Isle of man was—in 1824, (none); 1825, 65 tons; 1826, 221 do.; 1827, 342 do.; 1828, 495 do.; 1829, 163 do.; 1830, 331 do.; 1831, 311 do.; 1832, 269 do.; 1833, 1,580.

The shipping built and registered in the island during the last three years has been—

Years ending January.	Registered.			Built.	
	Vessels.	Tons.	Men.	Vessels.	Tons.
1833	225	6472	1302	14	819
1834	224	6572	1224	10	1689
1835	220	6483	1136	18	1334

General View.—Until of late years the Isle of Man was an asylum for debtors from England, Ireland, and Scotland, but the Manks' legislature wisely did away with the anomaly, and it was enacted, 'that any person prosecuted in this island for a foreign debt by any action of arrest in the Court of Chancery, shall, for the future, be held to bail only for his personal appearance to such action, and for the forthcoming of what effects he hath within this island to answer the judg-

ment upon the same.' 'All debts contracted out of the limits of the Isle of Man shall be recoverable in the said isle, in such and the like manner, to all intents and purposes, as if such debts had been contracted between the same parties within the limits of the said isle.'

The island is now the resort of numerous tourists from the three kingdoms; and Douglas is a favourite watering place for the inhabitants of Liverpool, Manchester, &c. For this it is well qualified; the summer heat is tempered by continued sea-breezes; and the winters are mild—snow seldom falling, or, if it does, not resting long on the ground.*

Provisions and luxuries are cheap and excellent, the scenery is varied, the bathing better than any place I know of, except Dover, and the accommodations at Mona Castle, with its delightful demesne, well calculated to restore an invalid to health, to recruit the energies of the care-worn merchant or trader, or to dispel ennui.

I trust that no attempt will be made to deprive the island of its privileges; a bill has been passed respecting corn, and that, I hope, will terminate our legislating on the trade of the place; it has been shewn, under finance, that but a *limited quantity* of taxed and excised articles is allowed to be imported, and barely sufficient for the inhabitants of the island; to place a rate of taxes on those articles equal to that which is levied in England would be as *unjust* as it would be *impolitic;* because the inhabitants of the Isle of Man are not represented in the Imperial Parliament,—they have had no voice in contracting the public debt, 800,000,000*l.*, which requires the enormous taxation we now labour under, and at a moment when our energies are directed to effect a reduction of taxation in England, it would be the height of inconsistency to augment the taxation of a poor community, who are too feeble to defend themselves; if equality be insisted on throughout the United Kingdom, without any heed being

* The Archdeacon, speaking of his parish, says, 'that as a proof of the salubrity of the island, that the average ages of the deaths from 1st January to August 1835 was sixty-nine and half years.

paid to the foregoing arguments, then let it commence with Ireland—where there is no land tax—no window tax—no assessed taxes—no soap, or brick tax, &c. &c. The injustice of such a step is further shewn by considering that the Isle of Man is a small and poor community, isolated from Great Britain and with an uncertain and dangerous communication during one half of the year. To increase the taxation of its inhabitants, who are thus in a great measure deprived of a participation in the prosperity of the governing country, would be to render them more impoverished without adding a shilling to the imperial treasury.

I sincerely hope, therefore, there will be no meddling by Parliament with this little isle, whose peculiar situation requires the enjoyment of that municipal government which the legislature has recently sanctioned for almost every petty town in England. The Isle of Man is now in that state that if we interfere not with its internal management it will prosper, and our interference can only be productive of evil.*

* This view of the subject is further corroborated by the following extract of a letter from Archdeacon Philpots:—'The Isle of Man stands almost alone among the British dependencies, in paying its own expenses; and not only does it cost the Government nothing, but from its excise duties, &c. annually remits to the Treasury a surplus of 12,000*l.* to 15,000*l.* This arises from the circumstance (however paradoxical it may seem) of its freedom from direct taxation. Hundreds of genteel families and individuals select it for their residence, because they can here live comfortably and respectably on a small income. The exemption above named; the low price of provisions; the cheap, though superior education at King William's College, are amongst the advantages which enable them to do this. A large proportion of these resident strangers are officers on half pay, so that the King's money is spent amongst the King's subjects, and partly returned into the King's coffers, instead of being spent on the Continent, whither these families and individuals would assuredly migrate, were the Isle of Man placed under the English system of taxation. Its prosperity would quickly depart; the articles now paying excise duties would not find consumers; the Home Government would thus lose its revenue, and perhaps be at charges on account of the Island; while a contented and loyal people would be injured without benefit to others, and reduced to poverty without any but strangers to Britain being enriched by it.' (See Append. E.)

CHAPTER X.

HELIGOLAND.

GEOGRAPHY—AREA—ASPECT—HISTORY—POPULATION—GOVERNMENT—RELIGION—SCHOOLS—SHIPPING—ADVANTAGES TO GREAT BRITAIN, &c.

The island of Heligoland,* in the N. sea, is situated in 54.11 N. lat., and 7.51 E. long. of Greenwich, and is from 24 to 26 English miles distant from the mouths of the Elbe, the Eyder, the Weser and the Jahde. It is of considerable importance to vessels bound to these rivers, not only because its church and lighthouse are an admirable beacon, but also because ships may here be supplied with experienced and licensed pilots.

The island, which is in the form of an acute angled triangle, is now only about one English mile in length from N. to S., one-third in breadth from E. to W., and two miles and one-third in circumference. It is certain that it was anciently of much greater extent, but there are no authentic records to determine how far it may have stretched into the sea and approached the continent. Its size in the eighth and thirteenth centuries, as laid down in some charts, is, like the accounts of its many flourishing churches, derived from oral tradition; and is not only extremely doubtful, but even improbable. Its size and figure, as marked in Meyer's chart in 1649, is most likely correct, and very nearly coincides with its present state. Like the sandy islet adjoining, it is daily decreasing in extent, from the attrition of the water; and it is very desirable that some public steps should be taken to stop its further destruction, as the inhabitants are quite unable to do so of themselves.

The island consists of the upper part, called the Oberland,

* I am indebted for the information relative to Heligoland to the urbanity of its Lieutenant-Governor, Colonel Sir Henry King, who transmitted me a document in German, as drawn up by a clergyman and magistrate of the island.

and the lower, or Unterland, which lies in a south-easterly direction. The height of the Oberland, at its most elevated point on the western side, is 200 feet above the level of the sea, the eastern side being lower.

The island is visible at a distance of 16 and 20 miles; its first appearance is very striking, and it increases in interest on a nearer approach.

The rock of which the island is composed is an indurated marle, or clay slate, arranged in alternate layers of red and grey, and probably was formed by alluvial deposits; some geologists, however, class it among the variegated sandstone, or what is called the green sandstone formation of English geologists. The upper part is covered to the depth of three or four feet with a rich mould, in which every kind of vegetable grows extremely well, but the lower part is composed entirely of sand and small fragments of rock and stones. The downs, which lie at the distance of 3,400 feet, are one mass of sand; they are, however, of considerable importance to the inhabitants, as they abound in a small sand eel, *Ammoditis Tobianus*, which is used as a bait. On the cliffs which extend beyond the downs, various petrifactions, such as ammonites, belemites, echini, enchrini, petrified wood, &c., are found, imbedded in limestone, iron pyrites, &c. The minerals found in the island are, copper, much iron pyrites, lime and sandstone, chalk, gypsum, &c. The sea abounds in a great variety of algæ, and various curiosities in shells, fish, &c.

The climate is mild, and resembles that of the midland counties of England, the heat and cold being tempered by the sea breezes; the air is pure and very salubrious, whence Heligoland has been much frequented by visitors from all parts of Germany, Prussia, Poland and Russia, since the erection of the baths in 1826. They are considered by physicians as the most efficacious in the N. sea; and at a recent sitting of the Medical Society at Leipsig, Dr. Clarus, speaking of these baths, observed:—'Heligoland, from its elevation of 200 feet above the level of the sea, the salubrity of the

air, the purity of the sea water and the violent dashing of the waves, will probably ere long be the first bathing place in the North Sea, and perhaps even in Europe—if the directors of the bathing institution are able to adopt the improvements which have been suggested by physicians.

The number of inhabitants is 2,200, and of houses 470; the average number of births in the year being 60, marriages 14, deaths 57. There is a greater proportion of funerals, as many of the men go out to sea. The population, which is greatly increasing, is considerable for so small a spot, especially as many families have emigrated within the last twenty years from the want of employment at home. They are chiefly engaged in the fishery or navigation, and many also are brought up as pilots. There is a brewery and a distillery, and the number of mechanics and shopkeepers is commensurate to the wants of this small colony.

There are 8 or 9 vessels of 50 or 60 tons each, which perform voyages to England, France, Norway, and the Baltic Sea, and about 60 open fishing boats of three or four tons, and small boats for the lobster fishing.

The Heligolanders are of Frisian origin, and speak a dialect of that language, but at church and in the school the High German alone is used. They are a tall and strong people, with handsome features and florid complexions; their habits are very simple, and their inactivity and fearfulness on shore as remarkable as their industry and daring courage at sea.

The Heligolanders are able seamen and make excellent pilots. Previous to their obtaining a license to act in the latter capacity they undergo an examination before a board of commissioners. The inhabitants are courteous and attentive to strangers, frank and obliging towards each other; quarrels are very rare among them and scarcely ever lead to blows; theft and other heavy crimes are unknown; they are remarkable for conjugal fidelity, and are very affectionate parents; illegitimate children are very rare, in many years not a single case of the kind occurs.

It is much to be regretted that, except during the fishing season, the people are entirely destitute of any useful and profitable source of employment—the majority of them are extremely poor, and often suffer want in their old age; yet they are contented, and prefer their own little island to every other spot.

The public expenses are defrayed out of the local treasury, the revenue of which is derived from dues paid by pilots, persons carrying on trade, and various incidental sources. The expenditure, however, generally exceeds the receipts, and the island treasury is besides this burdened with a heavy debt, which it will be difficult to discharge.*

The accounts of the early history of Heligoland, as well as of its ancient extent and junction with the continent, are extremely vague and fabulous. The first authentic historical notice we have of it is in the 11th century, by Adam of Bremen, who relates that Eilbert, having been appointed bishop of Fühnen by Adelbert archbishop of Hamburg, (who was bishop from 1043—1073) was proceeding to his new diocese, when he was captured by pirates and carried to Heligoland; that he here founded a monastery and rendered the island habitable. It is, however, probable that this place was known to the Frieslanders and Danes long before this, and perhaps served the latter as a station in their voyages to England. Very little importance, however, seems to have been attached to this island, even in the 12th and 13th centuries; and what the old chronicles relate of remoter ages, refers chiefly to storms and the devastations occasioned by inundations, &c. In the year 1400 the pirates committed great depredations in the North Sea, and Claus Störtebeker, one of their chief leaders, was taken near Heligoland by the Hamburgers who carried him to their city, where he was executed with 80 of his companions in 1402. When John, king of Denmark, of the house of Oldenberg, made over to his brother Frederick the duchy of Sleswick in 1490, Heligo-

* The charge to Great Britain is only £500. per annum for the Lieutenant-Governor.

land was probably included in his division, and in 1544 on the partition of the ducal domains, fell to the share of the house of Holstein Gottorp.

In the 16th century, the cities of Hamburg, Stade, and Bremen, had considerable factories here, chiefly for the herring fishery which was carried on to a great extent, and many disputes and battles took place between these cities, the people of the Ditmarsh and the Dukes of Sleswick, about the possession of them. A violent quarrel arose in 1545 between the Dukes and the Distmarshers, because the latter had put to death in the church at Heligoland, Wieben Peter, a noted pirate, who had sought refuge there after having bravely defended himself in the church yard. Amid all these turmoils, however, the Dukes maintained their authority in the island, except during very short intervals when they were deprived of it by the kings of Denmark, for instance by Christian V. from 1685 to 1689.

In August 1714, the island was conquered by the crown of Denmark, which retained possession of it till the 5th September, 1807, when it was occupied by the English, and in 1814 was formally ceded to Great Britain, under whose government it still continues.

During the system of the continental exclusion from 1807 to 1814, the possession of Heligoland was of the utmost importance to the English Government, as it enabled them to watch all the motions of the enemy in the countries lying on the coast; and gave them the command of the mouths of the rivers which permitted them to protect the commerce of British subjects with the neighbouring states, while the island at the same time served as a depôt for their goods, which were offered for sale, or sent to different parts of the Continent.

Though Heligoland has lost its former consequence, it would be invaluable to England in the event of a war with any of the neighbouring powers. At present it is of great service to navigation from its conspicuous lighthouse, from the able pilots who may always be obtained there, and from the anchorage it affords to shipping. This anchorage might

be converted into an excellent harbour, which would afford shelter to merchantmen and the government steam-boats which touch at this island during the winter season to deliver the mails, which at the breaking up of the ice, are always forwarded by vessels of small draught.

By virtue of the capitulation concluded with Admiral Russel, in 1807, the inhabitants were permitted to retain their ancient constitutions and the Danish laws, an agreement which has been strictly adhered to. The affairs of the island are administered by a governor (at present Colonel Sir Henry King, Knight of the Guelphic Order), and under him is a court composed of six municipal councillors, who are chosen from among the inhabitants. The finances and police are superintended by 16 elders, and 8 adjuncts, who with the municipal councillors constitute the government.

There are two clergymen belonging to the church of Saint Nicholas, which was built in 1685; the junior clergyman instructs the upper class in the school; the other two classes being taught by two schoolmasters. The total number of children in the schools is about 350.

The gradual diminution of the rock of Heligoland excites a feeling of melancholy regret that this spot, which is now the abode of a virtuous and happy people, may perhaps in a series of years disappear in the ocean. But it is to be hoped, that although the sea is daily undermining the rock, as the downs or *borlande* appear to increase, that the island may hereafter be replaced by a low and extensive sand bank.*

* A detailed description of Heligoland may be found in the 'Schleswig Holsteinischen Provinzial Berichten,' Anno 1790-91; also in 'J. v. d. Decken Philosophisch Historisch Geographische Untersuckung über de Insel Heligoland, Hanover, 1826. There are charts of Heligoland in Dankwart's Description of the Duchies of Schleswig and Holstein, 1649. There is also said to be a fine chart of Heligoland by Dickinson. A chart and some particulars relative to Heligoland may be found in Dr. E. Clarke's Travels, vol. iii.: and a pamphlet on Heligoland was published by Schulze, of Poland-street in, I think, 1809 or 1811.

CONCLUSION.

THE Colonies and Possessions* treated of in the foregoing chapters are valuable to England in a military as well as commercial point of view, and especially so in the present state of Europe, whether we view the belligerent aspect of the eastern horizon, or the commercial tariffs now enacting against our trade in various states. But these considerations I am forbidden to enter on here. I have now only to repeat that which I have dwelt on in the Introduction, namely, that I trust the facts set forth in these five volumes will be attentively examined, so that when we come to discuss the question of our *Colonial Policy*, there may be the less necessity for a recurrence to details, and that both the public and the author may be the better prepared to examine general principles free from the perplexity of *minutiæ*. In conclusion let me again be permitted to express an humble but heartfelt wish that the labour I have cheerfully undergone may be of some advantage to my country,—and that through the medium of her colonies the principles, the intelligence, the religion of England may be disseminated throughout the universe.

* It may be necessary to observe, that some of the Possessions treated of in this work are not, in the strict acceptation of the word, *Colonies*. The phrase has therefore been applied solely with a view to comprehend all the transmarine parts of the Empire not represented in the British Parliament; and with reference to the Ionian Isles, it is a burlesque terming them a 'Republic' under the protection of Great Britain, when it is considered that the Lord High Commissioner, with his almost supreme power, is nominated by the Colonial Secretary.

APPENDIX

OF

OFFICIAL AND PUBLIC DOCUMENTS

TO THE

FIFTH VOLUME

OF THE

HISTORY OF THE BRITISH COLONIES.

APPENDIX A.

CONSTITUTIONAL CHART OF THE IONIAN ISLANDS,

As agreed on and passed unanimously by the Legislative Assembly, on the 2nd May, 1817.

GENERAL ORGANIZATION.

Article 1. The United States of the Ionian Islands are composed of Corfu, Cephalonia, Zante, Santa Maura, Ithaca, Cerigo and Paxo, and the other smaller islands, situated along the coast of Albania and the Morea, which formerly belonged to the Venetian dominions.

Art. 2. The seat of the general government of the United States of the Ionian Islands is declared to be permanently fixed in the capital of the Island of Corfu.

Art. 3. The established religion of these states is the orthodox Greek religion; but all other forms of the Christian religion shall be protected, as hereinafter stated.

Art. 4. The established language of these states is the Greek; and, in consequence, it is hereby declared to be an article of primary importance, that the language of the nation should become, as soon as possible, that, in which all the records of government should be held, all process of law alone conducted, and, in fact, the sole recognized language for official proceedings within these states.

Art. 5. It being impossible, however, from the circumstances of the case, to carry the above principle into immediate effect, the

whole business of the country having been hitherto conducted principally in the Italian language, it is ordained that, during the first parliament, the Italian shall be the language in which all public business is to be conducted, save and except in the instances of the minor courts of law, where it may be judged expedient by the government to introduce the native language, with a view to its encouragement and general propagation.

Art. 6. With a further view at once to encourage the propagation of the languages of the protecting and protected states, his Highness, the President of the Senate, shall be bound, within six days after the first meeting of any parliament, to send down to the legislative assembly a project of a law, to be therein discussed, relative to how far it may be possible to extend the native language to other departments, or to the whole of the government; and it is to be clearly understood, that whenever a law is passed, declaring the Greek language to be the sole official language, that the only other language that can be made use of, in copies, or otherwise, is that of the protecting power, viz., the English.

Art. 7. The civil government of these states shall be composed of a legislative assembly, of a senate, and of a judicial authority.

Art. 8. The military command in these states being placed, by the treaty of Paris, in the hands of his Majesty's commander-in-chief, it remains with him.

Art. 9. The legislative assembly shall be elected in manner and form hereinafter stated from the body of the noble electors.

Art. 10. The senators shall be elected out of the body of the legislative assembly, in manner and form as may hereinafter be directed.

Art. 11. The judicial authority shall be selected by the senate, in manner and form as shall hereinafter be directed.

Art. 12. These elections, and all other civil appointments, shall be valid for the period of five years, except as may be hereinafter provided for.

Art. 13. At the expiration of five years, all appointments of right fall to the ground, and the new election of the new legislative assembly shall take place on the day of the expiration of the term of five years; but his highness the president of the senate, and the senators, the regents of the local governments, the judges, together with all the ministerial officers in the various departments, shall continue to exercise their duties; the first, till replaced by the new se-

nate and president; the second, till relieved by the new regents; the judges and ministerial officers, till removed or reappointed by the proper authority.

Art. 14. When the legislative assembly holds a session at the seat of government, the civil authority shall be termed the parliament of the United States of the Ionian Islands; and such session, being the first, shall be termed the first session of the first parliament.

Art. 15. The second parliament, and the subsequent sessions, shall be styled numerically in the same manner.

Art. 16. All acts of the legislative assembly, of the senate, and generally of all the departments of government, shall be registered according to the parliament and session in which they have been enacted, or otherwise carried into effect.

Art. 17. During the first parliament, an annual session shall take place, of right, the first day of every March, and shall continue in activity for three months; but such sessions may be prolonged beyond the said three months, in the event of necessity, for a period declared by the senate, and approved of by his excellency the lord high commissioner of the protecting sovereign.

Art. 18. In every subsequent parliament a session shall take place, of right, on the first day of March in every two years, and shall continue in activity for the same period as stated in the preceding article.

Art. 19. The power of assembling and proroguing parliament, on an emergency, shall be vested in his excellency the lord high commissioner of the protecting sovereign; but parliament cannot be prorogued for a longer space than six months.

Art. 20. The power of dissolving parliament, on any special emergency, shall be solely vested in his Majesty by an order in council.

Art. 21. On parliament being prorogued, the session of the legislative assembly shall forthwith cease for the period of prorogation; and all bills and acts of every kind, not completely carried through the parliament, shall fall to the ground.

Art. 22. When the parliament is dissolved, all bills and acts of every kind, not completely carried through, fall equally to the ground.

Art. 23. The public instruction of youth being one of the most important points connected with the prosperity and happiness of any

state, and it being of the utmost importance, both to the morals and religion of the country, that its pastors in particular should receive a liberal and adequate education, it is hereby declared to be a primary duty, immediately after the meeting of parliament, subsequent to the ratification of this constitutional charter by his Majesty the protecting sovereign, that measures should be adopted by the parliament for the institution, in the first place, of primary schools, and subsequently for the establishment of a college for the different branches of science, of literature, and of the fine arts.

CHAPTER II. THE SENATE.—SECTION I. GENERAL.

Article 1. The executive power in the United States of the Ionian Islands shall be vested in a senate composed of six persons, viz., five members and a president.

Art. 2. The style and title of the president shall be, his highness the president of the senate of the United States of the Ionian Islands; that of the other senators, the most illustrious (prestantissima).

Art. 3. His highness the president of the senate of the United States of the Ionian Islands, shall take rank of all other persons being natural born subjects of the Ionian states. The most illustrious the senators shall take rank next to the president, save and except as may hereinafter be provided.

Art. 4. It is agreed upon and declared, that his highness the president of the senate of the United States of the Ionian Islands, shall at all times enjoy the same military honours as his excellency the lord high commissioner of the protecting sovereign; and that the most illustrious the senators shall receive those of a major-general.

SECTION II. MODE OF ELECTION.

Art. 1. The nomination of his highness the president of the senate of the United States of the Ionian Islands, is conceded to his Majesty the protecting sovereign, through the medium of his lord high commissioner, he being a natural born noble subject of the Ionian states.

Art. 2. The most illustrious the senators, shall be elected by the members, and out of the body of the legislative assembly, in the proportion and manner following:—Island of Corfu, 1; Do. Cephalonia, 1; Do. Zante, 1; Do. Santa Maura, 1; Do. Paxo, Ithaca, Cerigo, 1.

Art. 3. The power of placing any individual of the legislative assembly in nomination as a senator, to be voted on by the members of the legislative assembly, shall be vested in the most illustrious the president of that assembly, under the following restrictions :—

1. He shall place no person in nomination to be voted on, where an application has not been made to him in writing, signed by at least four members of that body and himself, demanding such nomination.

2. He shall place in nomination any person where eight members of the assembly make a similar demand, and upon the members so nominated, the legislative assembly proceed to vote, viva voce, and the majority of votes taken down in writing by the secretaries, shall decide the election ; the most illustrious the president of the legislative assembly, or, in his absence or indisposition, the member executing his functions, having, in the event of equality of votes, the casting vote.

Art. 4. The most illustrious the senators shall be elected within three days at the farthest after the first meeting of the legislative assembly, the election taking place in the following rotation, viz.

1. Corfu; 2. Cephalonia; 3. Zante; 4. Santa Maura; 5. Ithaca, Cerigo, Paxo.

Art. 5. Within 24 hours subsequent to the election of a master for any island or islands, the same shall be transmitted by the most illustrious the president of the legislative assembly, to his excellency the lord high commissioner of the protecting sovereign, who shall within 24 hours transmit back to the legislative assembly, through the means of the most illustrious the president, either his approbation or his direct negative to such election.

Art. 6. In the event of his excellency the lord high commissioner of the protecting sovereign approving of the election, the senator so elected shall be the senator for the island or islands for which he is chosen.

In the event of a negative from his excellency the lord high commissioner of the protecting sovereign, the election shall fall to the ground ; and the legislative assembly shall forthwith proceed to the election of another member of their own body, in manner and form as already prescribed.

Art. 7. On this new election taking place, it shall again be transmitted to the lord high commissioner of the protecting sovereign for

his approbation or negative; and in the event of his again sending down to the legislative his negative, the election shall fall to the ground; and in this event, his excellency shall transmit within 24 hours the names of two members of the legislative assembly, belonging to the island or islands for which the election is to take place, when the legislative assembly shall elect, by a majority of votes, one of the said two members; and this election shall be final.

Art. 8. The most illustrious the members of the senate shall remain in office five years; his highness the president of the senate half that period. But it shall be competent for his excellency the lord high commissioner of the protecting sovereign either to name another, or re-appoint the same person for a second period of the same duration, save and except as may hereinafter be provided.

SECTION III. MODE OF PROCEEDING AND POWERS.

Art. 1. The six distinguished persons composing the senate shall decide every question brought before them by a majority of votes; and in the event of an equality of votes, his highness the president have the casting vote.

Art. 2. The initiative in the senate shall be vested alone in his highness. But each senator shall be permitted verbally, and once only in the same session of parliament, to propose to the senate any projét on any subject, with the view that he may submit the same projét to be discussed by the senate.

Art. 3. In the event of his highness declining to submit to the said projét to the senate, the senator in that case who originally proposed it, may submit it in writing, provided, in addition to his own name, such proposal is signed by another senator; and the proposition, in this form, shall be transmitted by his highness the president to his excellency the lord high commissioner of the protecting sovereign; and if approved by him, it shall be, without any alteration whatever, submitted to the discussion of the senate in the usual manner, by his highness. If disapproved of by his excellency it shall fall to the ground.

Art. 4. In the event of the indisposition or necessary absence of his highness the president of the senate of the United States of the Ionian Islands, his excellency shall name one of the other senators to execute the functions of the president, till his highness' return or

recovery; and the senator so named for the time, shall be styled the most illustrious the vice president.

Art. 5. In the event of the indisposition or absence of any most illustrious member of the senate, it shall possess the power of appointing, for the time, one of the legislative assembly then at Corfu, to execute his functions till his recovery or return; such appointment being subject to the same affirmative or negative on the part of his excellency of the protecting sovereign, and to the same proceeding, in every way, as in the instance of the original election of senators; and in the event of his excellency nominating a temporary president, as stated in the preceding article, the place of the senator so named shall be filled, pro tempore, in a similar manner.

Art. 6. In the event of the death of his highness the president of the senate of the United States of the Ionian Islands, his excellency the lord high commissioner shall be bound, within three days, to nominate a new president of the same.

Art. 7. In the event of the death of any of the most illustrious the senators, if the parliament be sitting at the time, it shall proceed, within three days, to the election of a new senator, in the manner heretofore directed. If the parliament be not sitting, the senate shall proceed forthwith to appoint a new senator, pro tempore, till the next meeting of parliament, when the election of the new senator shall take place.

Art. 8. The senate shall possess the right to name its own ministerial officers, with the exception as shall be hereinafter stated, and shall divide itself into three departments: viz. first, general; second, political; and third, financial.

Art. 9. The first department shall consist of his highness the president, and one of the said members; the second and third of two members each. To each of these departments shall be attached a secretary; being native born subjects of the Ionian States.

Art. 10. The distinct duties of the three departments shall be as follows:—The general department shall regulate all the necessary and minute details relative to the general administration of the government, which either may be so minute as not to require the immediate attention of the senate, or may demand its immediate execution. The political and financial departments shall, in like manner, possess similar powers.

Art. 11. The daily proceedings of the senate, in its collective capacity, shall be transmitted through the secretary of the general department to his excellency the lord high commissioner for his information; and all papers or reports are to be submitted to his excellency.

Art. 12. The senate, although possessing the power of naming its own ministerial officers, with the exception of the secretary to the general department, shall present within three days after its information to the legislative assembly, a correct list of all its ministerial officers, together with the proposed salaries attached to each, for the consideration, in point of numbers and amount of salaries, of that assembly, subject to the approbation of his excellency.

Art. 13. The senate shall possess the power of nominating to all the situations under the general government; the regents to the different local governments; the judges in all the islands; and generally to all situations except merely municipal ones, under the restrictions and reservations hereinafter stated.

Art. 14. The senate shall possess the authority of proposing any law to the consideration of the legislative assembly, and such law so transmitted by the senate, shall be taken into consideration accordingly; and any law sent down by the senate to be considered by the legislative assembly, if agreed to in that assembly by a majority of votes, shall be considered as a law if it meets with the approbation of his excellency, or is not subsequently cancelled by an order of His Majesty in Council.

Art. 15. The senate shall possess the power, after a bill has passed the legislative assembly, of putting a direct negative on the said bill, stating its reasons for so doing, and transmitting them, within three days, to the legislative assembly; when such act so passed shall fall to the ground, nor can it be introduced again in the same session.

Art. 16. The senate shall possess the power of establishing rules and regulations for the guidance of its own proceeding, provided such rules and regulations met with the sanction of his excellency, and do not interfere with the provisions of the constitutional chart, or with the established law of the land.

CHAPTER III. OF THE LEGISLATIVE ASSEMBLY.—SECTION I. GENERAL.

Article 1. The legislative assembly consist of forty members, in-

cluding the president. The style and title of the member shall be 'most noble.'

MODE OF ELECTION.

Art. 1. On the meeting of a new parliament, the president of the primary council shall be president of the legislative assembly, till the new senate is formed.

Art. 2. This election shall take place the day after that of the senators is completed, and the rules laid down in chapter II. section 2, relative to the election of senators, shall in all instances apply to the election of the president.

Art. 3. The most noble the 40 members of the legislative assembly shall be composed of 11 members, and 29 to be elected.

Art. 4. The 11 members shall, in the instance of parliament dying a natural death (that is, in all usual cases where it runs its full term of five years), consist of the president and members of the old senate, of the four regents of the great islands during the late parliament, one of the regents of the smaller islands, taken in the following rotation, viz., Ithaca, Cerigo, Paxo.

Art. 5. In the instance of a dissolution of parliament, the primary council shall uniformly consist of the president and members of the old senate, and of the legislative assembly, to be named by his excellency, within three days of the dissolution of parliament.

Art. 6. The most noble the 29 members to be elected, shall be furnished from the various islands in the following proportion, viz.; Corfu, 7; Cephalonia, 7; Zante, 7; Santa Maura, 4; Ithaca, 1; Cerigo, 1; Paxo, 1. But each of the three last, in the rotation in which they stand, shall elect a second.

Art. 7. The most noble the members of the legislative assembly to be elected by the various islands, shall be elected out of the body of the synditæ of the island to which such election may belong.

Art. 8. The election by the synditæ shall be made on a double list, formed and transmitted to them to vote on in manner following. This double list shall be made by the members of the new primary council, and in the instance of parliament dying a natural death, with a view to prevent any possibility of delay (some of the members of the new primary council, viz., the five regents being absent from the seat of government), its functions upon this head shall commence six months antecedent to the death of the parliament, in order to give time to the regents to consult with the senate on the subject.

Art. 9. On the double lists being completed, the president of the council shall transmit a copy of the said lists, signed by himself, to the regents of the different islands, so as to arrive at least 14 days antecedent to the death of the parliament.

Art. 10. Whereas in article 13, chapter 1, provision is made for the time of the new elections taking place upon the natural death of the parliament, but no provision is made relative to the time of election on the dissolution of parliament. On any such emergency, the new elections shall take place the 40th day after the proclamation for the said dissolution, and the new primary council shall send down, within six days after such dissolution, the lists for the regents to proceed upon.

Art. 11. Notwithstanding a day is fixed, within the instance of the death of parliament, for the new elections to take place; as it may be impossible, from the divided situations of these states, to foresee the accidents that may prevent the arrival of the mandate of the president of the primary council, enclosing the lists, within the period stated in the antecedent articles, it is to be understood, that, in the event of such accident occurring, the elections in the said islands shall take place within five days after the mandate of the president of the council arrives; and that all such elections shall be held legal and valid.

Art. 12. Whether the parliament dies a natural death or dissolved, in either case the new assembly shall meet at the seat of government within 20 days after the day of its election, and as much sooner as circumstances will admit, it will be signified by mandate from his highness the president.

Art. 13. Whereas in chapter II., sect. 2, art. 2, provision is made, that the senators shall be elected out of the body of the assembly; and whereas such election vacates the seats of the members chosen in the legislative assembly by death or from a variety of circumstances in all and every such instance, the president shall, within six days of such vacancy occurring, issue a mandate to the regent of the island to which such vacancy belongs, together with a list, directing him to call a meeting of the synditæ, to fill up the vacancy; and such meeting shall be called within six days after the receipt of such mandate.

Art. 14. Although from the moment of the meeting of the assembly, there is no distinction in the powers and authority of the

integral members thereof, and those elected by the different islands, yet the power of issuing mandates in all cases that may occur hereafter, of vacancies of every kind in the legislative body, and of making the double lists for elections, shall be exclusively and in every instance, vested in the 11 integral members, through the medium of their president.

Art. 15. On all occasions of importance or emergency, in which the legislative assembly may wish to hold personal conference with the senate, or with his excellency, or *vice versa*, the committee of the said legislative assembly for conducting such conference, shall consist of the said primary council.

Art. 16. Whereas the case may occur, that his highness the new president of the senate of the Ionian Islands, may be the president, or a member of the primary council; on all such occasions his excellency shall be bound, within three days, to nominate a new president out of the said council itself, and a new member for the said council out of the assembly.

Art. 17. The organization of the synditæ, or noble electors of these states, as declared in 1803, shall be maintained and confirmed, save and except as it may hereafter be changed by any law passed in regard to it.

Art. 18. The most illustrious the regent of each island shall be, upon all occasions, the president of the synditæ, and shall direct the proceedings thereof, assisted by the secretary of the local government, and the advocate fiscal, as his assessor.

Art. 19. The said most illustrious the regents and the assessor, shall annually correct the lists of the synditæ of the various islands, striking off from the lists those who may have lost their qualification, and admitting those who may produce satisfactory proof of being in possession of the due qualification; and such lists, when corrected, shall be uniformly transmitted to the senate, antecedent to the 1st of October.

Art. 20. The above-mentioned lists, so confirmed or corrected, shall be sent back from the senate to the most illustrious the regents of the different islands; and they shall be the lists upon which all elections in the ensuing years shall be made, and no person, whatever his qualification may be, whose name does not appear on the said lists, shall have any right of voting.

Art. 21. In the instance of all elections, whether general on the

assembling of a new parliament, or particular during any parliament, the verification of such elections shall be made by the regent and his assessors of the island where they may have taken place, and shall be transmitted forthwith to the president of the legislative assembly, with a certificate on oath signed by them, that the person or persons elected had a legal majority of votes.

Art. 22. Should a case occur, under any circumstances, where, after due public notice has been given, the meeting of the synditæ does not amount to the legal number, viz. one half, the most illustrious the regent will forthwith adjourn the said meeting, and give a fresh public notice of a new meeting of the synditæ, to be held three days afterwards; and if at such second meeting the number of electors again does not amount to the legal number, in such event the regent shall forthwith put an end to the meeting, and transmit to his highness the president, without delay, the lists originally transmitted to the regent by the president; and the senate shall proceed, within two days after the receipt of such double lists, to elect out of the lists so sent up, the member or members to be nominated for the legislative assembly.

Art. 22. The election made by the senate, under the circumstances stated in the preceding article, shall be held, to all intents and purposes, legal and valid.

Art. 23. The synditæ of the island who were not in legal number on the day or days of the election for the said island, being deemed to have lost, from their own neglect, their franchise in regard to such election, and on all such occasions the verification of such election shall rest on a certificate of his highness the president to that effect.

SECTION III. MODE OF PROCEEDING AND POWERS.

Art. 1. In the event of the death, necessary absence, or indisposition of the most illustrious the president, the legislative assembly shall in the first case proceed, the very next meeting to elect a new president, in the form and under the regulations before stated; in either of the latter cases the legislative assembly shall proceed at its next meeting, in the same form to elect a temporary president, and such president shall be termed the most illustrious the vice president of the legislative assembly.

Art. 2. It shall require the presence of 10 members and the president or vice president to constitute a legal meeting of the assembly.

Art. 3. In the event of the above-named number not attending one hour after the fixed hour for meeting the president, or in his absence, the vice president shall forthwith adjourn the meeting to the ensuing regulated day of meeting.

Art. 4. There shall be three regular days of meeting of the assembly in every week, Tuesday, Thursday, and Saturday; and the hour of such meeting shall be ten o'clock, A.M.

Art. 5. Independent of the said regulated days of meeting, extra meetings shall be held as circumstances may require, and as the most illustrious the president or vice president may direct, or as a majority of the house on a motion to that effect may decree.

Art. 6. Every question of every kind shall be decided by the majority of votes of the most noble the members present, except as hereinafter may be enacted: and in every instance, the most illustrious the president, or vice president, in his absence, in the event of equality, shall have the same privilege of a double voice in the assembly, as his highness, the president in the senate, stated in chapter II. sect. 3, article 1st.

Art. 7. Every vote on every question shall be given *viva voce*, and the number of such votes shall be recorded by the secretaries.

Art. 8. The legislative assembly shall have two secretaries; the one shall be termed the secretary of the legislative assembly; the other shall be termed the secretary of the primary council; and both secretaries shall be equal in point of rank.

Art. 9. The appointment of the secretary of the primary council, shall be reserved to his excellency the lord high commissioner, and such secretary may be either a native Ionian, or a British-born subject.

Art. 10. A copy of the daily *procès verbal* of the legislative assembly, shall be transmitted by the secretary of the primary council, to his excellency the lord high commissioner; and no *procès verbal* shall be legal if not signed by both secretaries.

Art. 11. The legislative assembly shall possess the sole power of nominating the senators in these states, in manner directed in chap. II. sect. 2.

Art. 12. The modes of introducing laws to the consideration of the legislative assembly shall be three:—

Art. 13.—1. His excellency the lord high commissioner shall possess the power of transmitting to the assembly the projèts of laws

through the medium of the senate of the United States of the Ionian Islands.

2. The senate shall possess the power of transmitting to the legislative assembly the projèt of any law it may deem expedient.

3. Any member of the legislative assembly has the right to submit the projèt of any law to the consideration of the assembly. In either of the first two instances, the legislative assembly shall be bound to take the same into consideration, under the provisions stated, relative to projèts of laws brought forward by the individuals for the consideration of the legislative assembly, and when laid upon the table of that assembly.

Art. 14. When any member of the legislative assembly wishes to introduce a measure for its consideration, he shall in the first instance apply for leave to bring in a bill to that effect, and submit to the assembly, *vivâ voce*, the reasons for which he deems it expedient; and the assembly shall then determine whether such leave shall be granted; but the said member shall be bound two days before he makes such application, to intimate his intention on that head to the assembly for its information.

Art. 15. In the event of such leave being granted by the assembly, the member shall introduce and forward the bill in writing, within one week, or less, from the period when the leave was granted.

Art. 16. The bill thus introduced shall remain upon the table of the assembley for the perusal of the members, till the second regulated meeting after its introduction, when it shall be taken into consideration, and approved of or rejected by the majority of votes of the members present.

Art. 17. In the event of the first discussion rendering it necessary, the said discussion may be adjourned to the next meeting, or to the subsequent one; but the discussion on no bill shall be adjourned beyond the third meeting after the first discussion on the same, and it must then be finally closed, either in the affirmative or negative.

Art. 18. In all instances where any law may be passed by the assembly, it shall in 24 hours subsequent to its passing, be transmitted by the most illustrious the president of the assembly, signed by him, and countersigned by the secretaries to the senate, for its approbation.

Art. 19. In the event of such law receiving the approbation of the senate, it shall again be signed by his highness the president, and countersigned by the secretaries.

Art. 20. In the event of such law being disapproved of by the senate, it shall be transmitted back, with the signature of the president and the counter-signature of the secretary, to the most illustrious the president, and stating to him that it had been negatived by the senate.

Art. 21. In the event of any bill being approved of by the senate, it shall be transmitted within 24 hours by the president to his excellency, who shall forthwith either give it his approbation or negative, and sign it himself, being countersigned by his secretary.

Art. 22. His excellency the lord high commissioner shall transmit back to his highness the president the bill so approved or negatived; and his highness the president shall transmit it to the most illustrious the president of the legislative assembly; when the said law, if approved of, shall be given over to the archivist of the United States, to be recorded as the law of the land.

Art. 23. Notwithstanding the sanction of his excellency the lord high commissioner shall be in all common cases sufficient to establish the law of the land, and the ultimate sanction of His Majesty is not necessary to that end, where any bill may have been passed by the different authorities stated; still, as the case may occur that his excellency may have given his sanction to the passing of a law which to His Majesty may appear improvident or unwise, it shall be reserved to His Majesty to have the power, within a year after the passing of any such law, by an order of His Majesty in council, to cancel the same; in which case it shall be expunged from the records of government.

Art. 24. In the event of any bill having been introduced into the legislative assembly by any individual member, and approved by the assembly, and which shall subsequently have been rejected by the senate, or having been rejected by his excellency after being approved of both by the legislative assembly and senate, it shall be illegal to introduce any bill more than once again during the course of that parliament.

Art. 25. The legislative assembly shall possess the power of amending or altering any clause in any bill that may be under discussion; but in all instances where any such amendment has been made, notice is to be given to the party who introduced it, provided such bill had been introduced either by the senate or by his excellency; and the final discussion in the assembly shall be postponed to the ensuing meeting.

Art. 26. If the party introducing the bill signifies his consent to such amendment, and which shall be done by the next regulated meeting, the discussion shall of course proceed.

Art. 27. If the said party signifies his negative to such amendments, assigning his reasons, which shall be done within the same period as mentioned in the preceding article, the amendment shall, in that case, be reconsidered and re-voted on in the assembly; and the discussion shall afterwards proceed in the manner herein directed.

Art. 27. In like manner, in the event of a bill having been introduced into the legislative assembly by the individuals, members, it shall be competent for the senate to propose an amendment to any such bill; which amendment shall be transmitted for the consideration of the assembly, and discussed at the ensuing meeting; and its decision shall be forthwith made known to the party wishing to make such amendment.

Art. 28. The legislative assembly shall possess the power of regulating the ordinary expenses of these islands; and at the commencement of every session of parliament, shall make such alteration or amendment upon that head as to it may seem fitting.

Art. 29. There shall be laid on the table of the assembly, within six days after the commencement of every session of parliament by the senate, through the medium of the secretary of its general department, the civil list of the whole of these states in all its branches; and this list shall either be confirmed or amended, as the assembly shall decree.

Art. 30. The form, mode, and power of introducing any such alteration or amendment in the said lists, shall be vested in the same authorities as in the case of the introduction of a new law; and the mode of proceeding, with regard to such alteration or amendment, shall be the same in every instance, with this sole difference, that the alteration of the civil list shall be made by a simple resolution, instead of, as in the instance of a new law, laying the law itself upon the table.

Art. 31. The legislative assembly shall possess the power of establishing rules and regulations for the guidance of its own proceedings, provided such rules and regulations meet with the sanction of his excellency, and do not interfere with the provisions of the constitutional chart, or with the established law of the land.

CHAPTER IV. LOCAL GOVERNMENTS.—SECTION I. GENERAL.

Art. 1. Besides the general government of the United States, there shall be in each island a local government acting under the authority and orders of the said general government.

Art. 2. At the head of this local government, in each of the islands, there shall be a regent; and the ministerial officers under such regent shall be an advocate fiscal, an archivist, and a treasurer.

Art. 3. The most illustrious the regent in each island, shall, within the said island, receive the same honours as those paid to a senator of the United States.

Art. 4. His excellency the lord high commissioner, with a view to give the necessary and full effect to the right inherent in the high protection under which these are placed, shall appoint a representative of himself to reside in each of the said islands; and such representative shall be styled the resident of his excellency, and shall in all respects be paid the honours due to him in such capacity.

Art. 5. The resident of his excellency shall be either a British or an Ionian subject.

SECTION II. MODE OF APPOINTMENT, &c.

Art. 1. The most illustrious the regent in each island shall be appointed by the senate; but his excellency the lord high commissioner of the protecting sovereign shall, in respect to the said appointment, possess the same power and authority as he does in regard to the election of senators by the legislative assembly, as stated in chapter II, section 2, articles 5, 6, and 7.

Art. 2. The most illustrious the regent in each island shall, generally speaking, be a native of the island in which he is appointed; but in case of emergency the senate shall have the power of nominating a native of any other island, subject to the approbation of his excellency.

Art. 3. The advocate fiscal in each of the islands shall be nominated direct by the senate, subject to the same negative, &c. on the part of his excellency, as in the instance of the regent himself.

Art. 4. The secretary and archivist shall be named by the most illustrious the regent, and subject to a similar negative on the part of the senate as his excellency possesses in the instance of the appointment of the regent.

Art. 5. The local treasurers shall be appointed by the treasurer of the general government of the Ionian States; but such appointment shall receive the sanction of the senate, and of his excellency the lord high commissioner; and the senate shall exact such security as it may deem necessary.

Art. 6. The most illustrious the regent of the island shall be at all times, ex officio, the president of the municipal administration; and the members of the said administration shall continue in office for the period of two and a half years from their election.

Art. 7. In all questions to be decided in the municipal administration, the most illustrious the regent of the island, in his capacity as president, shall possess exactly the same votes as in the instance of his highness the president in the senate.

Art. 8. The most illustrious the regent and his assessors shall arrange the nomination and appointment of the said five officers in the mode following:—

1. Eight days' public notice shall be given by the regent of the island, of the day fixed for the election.

2. The synditæ, individually, shall be at liberty to propose in writing such of their body as they wish should be in nomination for the said offices.

3. The said proposal in writing shall be termed 'Lists,' and shall be transmitted to the regent; and no lists shall be received by him beyond the morning of the day before the one fixed for the election.

4. The said lists shall be scrutinized and regulated by the regent and his assessors on the day before the election. If more than 20 lists have been given in, the regent shall place in nomination the 20 names in whose favour the majority of signatures appears in the lists.

5. In the event of there not being 20 lists delivered in, he shall place in nomination all the persons in whose favour he has received lists.

6. In the event of there being no list given in at all, the regent himself shall form a double list, which, however, must be approved of by the resident of his excellency; and in this total deficit of lists, or in all cases of deficit of the necessary number of lists, the synditæ shall vote on the said double lists thus furnished by the regent, and approved of by his excellency.

Art. 9. The synditæ shall vote upon the lists above described, *vivâ voce*, and the regent and his assessors shall forthwith declare the names of the ten persons of the synditæ who have the majority of votes in their favour; and from these ten the regent, with the approbation of the resident of his excellency, shall name, within 24 hours five persons, who are to be considered as duly elected.

Art. 10. In case of any difference of opinion accruing with regard to the above election, between the resident and the regent, such difference is to be forthwith transmitted to the senate for its ultimate decision, and that of his excellency.

SECTION III. MODE OF PROCEEDING AND POWERS.

Art. 1. The regent of each island shall administer the executive government of the island, under the orders of the senate of the united states.

Art. 2. The regent in each island shall administer the municipal regulations now existing, or that may hereinafter be enacted in the said island.

Art. 3. The regent in each island shall, through the means of his secretary, keep an exact *procès verbal* of his daily proceedings; and which *procès verbal* shall be transmitted daily to the resident of his excellency for his information.

Art. 4. No act of any regent of any of the islands shall be valid, unless such act appears on the day it took place on the procès verbal, and is signed by the secretary, and certified by the resident of his excellency, as having been seen by him.

Art. 5. The regent in each island shall possess the power of suspending from their offices any of the local functionaries; but such suspension must previously receive the sanction of the resident of his excellency, and can only be held good until the pleasure of the senate on the subject shall be known.

Art. 6. The regent on each island shall possess the power, in all cases of importance relative to the executive government, of calling to his aid the secretary and advocate fiscal, as his deliberate advisers, and their opinion shall be recorded on the procès verbal; but the responsibility of every measure shall totally rest on the regent himself.

Art. 7. The monthly meetings of the municipal council shall be four, and the days on which they are to take place shall be established by a regulation of the regent in each island.

Art. 8. Exclusive of the four monthly meetings, the regent in each island shall call all such extra meetings of the municipal council as he may judge fitting.

Art. 9. The function of the municipal administration in each island shall be classed under the following heads, viz :

1. Agriculture, public instruction, and objects of national industry.
2. Commerce and navigation.
3. Subsistence of the people.
4. Civil, police, and charitable establishments.
5. Religion, morals, and public economy.

Art. 10. The most illustrious the regent of the island, in his quality of president of the municipal magistracy, shall appoint one of the members of the same to superintend each one of the above-mentioned departments.

Art. 11. Each member thus appointed shall possess the power of regulating the details of the department confided to his care, according to the existing laws, or municipal regulations; but it is clearly to be understood, that no municipal magistrate has the right of incurring any expense relative to his own department.

Art. 12. In all cases where any expense may be deemed necessary by any magistrate of the municipal body, the same must be submitted to the whole municipal council, when, if approved of, it is to be forwarded to the senate for sanction.

Art. 13. No extra expenditure, excepting in cases of emergency, whether by the regent himself, or by the municipal council, shall be authorised without the previous sanction of the resident of his excellency; and all extra expenditure in any island shall be submitted to the senate, and finally decided on by it, with the approbation of his excellency.

Art. 14. The most illustrious the regent in each of the islands shall possess the power of making such municipal temporary regulations as appear to him to be necessary.

Art. 15. The secretary of the islaud and the archivist shall in all instances be natives of the island in which they are appointed; and they are the particular officers of government attached to the regent, and shall execute their functions as prescribed by the present rules.

Art. 16. The advocate fiscal in any island shall be a native of the united states of the Ionian Island.

Art. 17. The local treasurer in any island shall receive his in-

structions from the treasurer of the general government, as will be hereinafter directed.

Art. 18. The resident of his excellency shall possess the power of staying any proceedings of any of the local authorities, with the view to such proceedings being investigated by the general government, but he shall at the time assign his reason for so doing.

Art. 19. The provisions of this chapter apply generally to the local governments of all the islands, but are made with a view to the scale of the local governments of the larger in particular. It is therefore to be clearly understood, that the senate, with the approbation of his excellency, may restrict the appointments before specified in the smaller islands, as far as relates to the secretary, the archivist, the treasurer, the advocate fiscal, and the municipal body, within such bounds as the nature of the situation and circumstances in justice may require.

[It is unnecessary to give any more of this charter. The 5th chapter relates to ecclesiastical establishments; the 6th to judicial authority; the 7th and 8th is miscellaneous.]

APPENDIX B.

QUARANTINE REGULATIONS AT MALTA.

1. All ships and vessels of every description, which may be judged liable to perform quarantine by his Majesty's government, shall proceed into the harbour of Marsa Muscet, which port is solely appropriated for that purpose.

2. All merchant vessels liable to quarantine, entering the great harbour when it is possible to comply with the foregoing regulation, will be subject to the penalty of 200 dollars.

3. All ships and vessels, after entering the quarantine harbour, shall be visited by the captain of the port, who will point out the proper place of anchorage, according to the nature of the quarantine they may have to perform, putting the usual queries to each commander, as stated in the printed quarantine regulations under this date; the answers to be taken down in writing by the captain of the port, and sworn to, if required, by the commander, and subsequently entered in the register, kept in the quarantine office for that purpose.

4. All vessels arriving with foul bills of health, that is, from

countries or places where the plague or any infectious disease doth actually exist, shall be subject to a quarantine of 30 days; the quarantine to commence from the period the whole of the susceptible articles (which are enumerated in the lazaretto regulations) shall be landed in the lazaretto. The said goods to be exposed in the lazaretto to 35 days' expurgation, in the strictest manner, and 10 days subsequently for repackage.

5. All vessels arriving with cargoes of an unsusceptible nature, viz. of such articles as are not enumerated in the quarantine regulations, and with foul bills of health, shall be subjected to a quarantine of thirty days: the unsusceptible articles to be landed with as little delay as possible, according to the quarantine regulations; and if no susceptible articles be discovered on board such vessels when unloaded, the term of her unloading will be included in the quarantine.

6. Vessels arriving with touched bills of health, that is, from ports or places having communication with countries where the plague or any infectious diseases doth exist, and making use of no precautionary measures against the introduction of such disease,

Regulations for the Performance of Quarantine.—All ships and vessels, as well as his Majesty's ships of war, coming from, or having touched at, any place from whence it shall, by government, have been adjudged and declared probable, that the plague, or any other infectious disease, or distemper, may be brought, shall enter the harbour of Marsa Muscet, and be obliged to perform quarantine in such place or places, for such time and in such manner, as shall from time to time, be directed by his Excellency the Governor, through the medium of the superintendent of quarantine.

And all ships, vessels, and boats receiving any person, goods, wares, and merchandise, packets, baggage, books, letters, or any article whatever, from or out of any ship or vessel, so coming from, or having touched at such suspected place as aforesaid, are liable to the same quarantine; whether such persons, goods, or other articles shall have come, or articles put on board the same, either before or after the arrival of such ship or vessels in the island of Malta.

And that until such ships, vessels, and boats, persons, goods, and other articles as aforesaid, shall have respectively performed, and shall be duly discharged from such quarantine, no such person, goods, or other articles as aforesaid, or any of them, shall come or be brought on shore, unless in such manner and in such cases as they shall be directed and authorized by the superintendent of quarantine,

and under the immediate inspection of the captain of the port, or the captain of the lazaretto.

And all commanders, masters, and other persons on board any such ship, vessel, or boat, so liable to quarantine, and all persons who shall have any intercourse or communication with them, or any of them, shall perform quarantine accordingly, under and subject to all the pains, penalties, fines, forfeitures, and punishments, as well pains of death as others to which they are by law subject, for any escape, or attempt to escape, or any other breach of quarantine regulations.

Upon the arrival of any ship or vessel liable to quarantine, the captain of the port, together with the medical attendant, when it shall be thought necessary, shall go off to each ship or vessel, and at a convenient distance, keeping to windward, and in the presence of the officers, crew, and passengers, mustered on the gangway, demand of the commander, or person having charge of such ship or vessel, answers to the following questions:—

1. What is the name of the vessel, and the name of the commander?

2. Are you the commander? What number of officers, mariners, passengers, or other persons have you on board?

3. To what port or place does the ship or vessel belong?

4. Where did you take in your present cargo; and at what place did you touch before you arrived at the port or place where you took in your present cargo?

5. From what port or place does she now come? When did you sail from such port or place, and at what place or places have you touched in the course of your voyage?

6. Have you any bills of health, and from what place? Are the same clean, unclean, or suspected? Produce them.

7. Of what articles does your cargo consist? At what place or places was the cargo, or any part thereof, taken on board, and in what day did you sail from such place or places, and what part of your cargo was taken in at such place, and when?

8. Have any persons died on board during the voyage,—(if any) when and in what part of the voyage, and of what disease?

9. In the course of the voyage have any persons on board suffered from sickness of any kind,—(if any) what was the nature of

such sickness? When did it prevail? How many persons were affected by it? Are all persons on board at present in good health?

10. Were any of those who died, or who have been sick in the course of the voyage, suspected to have been affected by any infectious disease? Were the bedding and clothes of the deceased, or sick persons, destroyed? Were any persons, employed about the sick, afterwards taken ill,—(if so) of what disease, and in how many days after having been so employed?

11. At what precise time, after leaving port, did such deaths happen? In how many days, after being indisposed, did the sick die? What were the most obvious appearances of the disease?

12. Do you know whether any person whatever employed in loading your vessel, or in bringing articles into it, or having any communication on board thereof, was taken ill during such employment or communication, or whether any suspicion was entertained of their having been taken ill,—(if so) of what disease?

And when thought necessary, the answers to the aforesaid questions shall be taken down in writing, and the commander or other person, having charge of such ship or vessel, shall solemnly make oath to the truth thereof, before the captain of the port, and shall conform to all such directions as he shall receive, touching quarantine, from the officers of health.

It having been ascertained that certain sorts of goods and merchandise are more especially liable to retain infection, and may be brought from places infected into this island, such goods and merchandise are here enumerated in two classes, viz.

Class the First—consisting of those articles which are considered as most liable to infection:—Apparel of all kinds; artificial flowers; bast, or any article made thereof; beads, bracelets, or necklaces in strings; beds; bed-ticks; brooms of all sorts; books; brushes of all sorts; burdets; camlets; carmenia wool; carpets; canvass; cordage not tarred; cotton wool; cotton yarn; cotton thread; all articles wholly made of or mixed with cotton, silk, wool, thread, or yarn; down; feathers; flax; furriers' waste; goats' hair; gold or silver on thread, cotton, wool, or silk, or any other substance hereinbefore enumerated; grogram; hats, caps, or bonnets of straw, chip, cane, or any other material; hemp; hoops; horn and horn tips; hair of all sorts; leather; linen; lutestrings, catlings, or harp-

strings; maps; mattresses; mats and matting; mohair yarn; nets new or old; packthread; paper; parchment; pelts; platting of bast, chip, cane, straw, or horse-hair; quills; rags; sails and sail-cloth; silk, viz. crapes and tiffanies; husks and knubs, raw silk, thrown and organzine silk, waste silk, wrought silk; skins, hides, and furs, and parts or pieces of skins, hides, and furs, whether undressed, or in part, or wholly tanned or dressed; sponges; straw, or any article made or mixed with straw; stockings of all sorts; thread; tow; vellum; whisks; wool, whether raw or any wise wrought; yarn of all sorts; and all other goods whatever, if they shall have arrived in, or with packages, consisting wholly, or in part, of any of the articles above enumerated in this class, unless such goods shall be removed from such package, as hereinafter mentioned.

Class the Second—consisting of those articles which are considered as liable to infection, but in a less degree:—Senna; jalap; gum Arabic, tragacanth; opium, scammony; antimony; cantharides; alum; juniper berries; pomegranates, flower and seeds; sal nitre; sal ammoniac; madder; shumac; galls; tobacco; coffee; wood in raspings; cork; and all such goods, wares and merchandise here specified, which shall be brought or imported into Malta, from suspected places, together with the ships or vessels in which the same shall be brought, shall be subject and liable to such quarantine regulations as may be made, from time to time, by his Excellency the Governor of these islands.

In the event of any person being afflicted with any infectious disease, either on board ship, or in the lazaret, a sufficient number of guards shall be regularly kept by day and night for the purpose of preventing all clandestine communication between persons in the lazaret and those occupying that part of it appropriated for a pest-house; and a sufficient number of guard boats, having guards with loaded muskets, shall be regularly kept for the purpose of preventing communication between persons in the lazaret and those in ships and vessels under quarantine, and between those and any other persons in any other ship, vessel, or boat, or on shore.

And all boats belonging to vessels under quarantine (with foul bills of health) shall be taken from them, and no use made of such boats, except for the purpose of conveying goods to the lazaret, or upon occasions of necessity, to be determined by the superintendent

of quarantine, and such boats shall not be delivered up to the commanders of such ships, until the expiration of the quarantine respectively to be performed by them.

And all ships or vessels in quarantine with clean bills of health will be allowed the use of one boat, carrying the yellow flag, and having a health guardian on board, subject to such orders and instructions as they may receive from the health officers; such boats to be regularly hoisted in or secured by a chain and padlock one hour before sunset, and not be used before seven o'clock in the morning in summer, and eight in winter.

A proper person appointed by the superintendent of quarantine shall, as often as required, afford assistance, and provide necessaries for the persons in the lazaret, and also for those on board ships and vessels under quarantine in Marsa Muscet harbour, which person shall not charge more than the market price for such necessaries furnished by him, and shall deliver them (his boat being placed to windward) by means of buckets, taking care to prevent any improper communication.

The quarantine guardians placed on board ships and vessels shall be instructed to take special care that nothing whatever be delivered from on board such ships or vessels when under quarantine, without an order in writing from the superintendent; and nothing, however little susceptible it may be thought to be of infection, shall be conveyed from one ship or vessel under quarantine to another, nor any personal intercourse be permitted from one ship or vessel to another; and one of the quarantine guardians, when thereto required by the superintendent of quarantine or captain of the lazaret, shall accompany the lighters and boats employed in passing to and from the vessels, in order to prevent any communication in the transit of the cargo from the ships to the lazaret, and shall take care, after every removal of goods, that no remnants of cotton or of any other article enumerated in either of the two before-mentioned classes, remain in the lighter, or in the boats, but shall, before leaving off work, collect and deliver such remnants into the lazaret with the last package, which they shall then carry from the said ship or vessel, and the health-guardian shall take care, that, after the discharge of the cargoes into the lazaret, the holds and between-decks of the ships shall be completely swept, and the sweepings burnt.

The said guardians shall diligently search the lockers, shelves,

and other repositories of the officers, passengers, and crew, and every part of the ships and vessels, so that no article so enumerated in either of the two before-mentioned classes, nor any matter or thing considered as susceptible of infection, remain undelivered to the lazaret, unless what shall be declared by the medical attendant or captain of the lazaret to be requisite for daily use, and shall see that all the said chests, lockers, and other repositories, and all the clothes and bedding in the ship or vessel be daily opened and aired, in such manner as shall be directed by the superintendent of quarantine; and the guardians shall also make the like diligent search in ships and vessels laden with other goods not enumerated in either of the said classes, so as to be able the better to ascertain that nothing enumerated or considered susceptible has been left on board.

If any person on board shall fall sick, and any medical person shall be on board the ship or vessel, such medical person shall confer with the medical attendant alongside the vessel (the medical attendant keeping to windward), at a proper distance; and in case there shall be no medical person on board, and that it shall be necessary for the medical attendant to visit the sick, the visit shall be made at the ship's boat, by the medical attendant in another boat; and if any patients after having been so examined, shall be found to require such medical or surgical aid as cannot properly be administered on board ship, he shall be accordingly removed to the lazaret hospital, or to apartments in the lazaret. And should there be any patients under circumstances which shall induce suspicion that they may be infected with the plague or any other infectious disorder, whether such persons shall be in the lazaret or in any ship or vessel performing quarantine, they shall be sent to the pest-house or other place provided for the reception of persons afflicted with any infectious disease; and when it shall be proved that the disease is not the plague, nor infectious, the patients shall be removed to a more commodious apartment in the lazaret, there to complete the remainder of his quarantine.

And in case that any pestilential disorder actually discovers itself on board any ship or vessel, or among any of the persons under quarantine on board of any ship or vessel, or in the lazaret, the person or persons affected with such disorder shall be removed, with all possible care and despatch, under the direction of the captain of the lazaret and medical attendant at the pest-house, or place in the

lazaret provided for the reception of persons affected with any infectious disorder; and a proper attendant shall be assigned to such patient or patients; and such patient or patients shall be visited at a due distance by the medical attendant; and in case nearer approach shall be required, some persons shall be specially appointed by the medical attendant for that purpose.

The passengers or crew of any ship or vessel under quarantine may have the assistance of any medical person they may desire, from the shore; subject to the official visits of the medical attendant, and to such regulations and restrictions as the superintendent of quarantine (with the advice of the medical attendant) may judge necessary. But all such medical persons, as well as all others, if they communicate by contact with the sick, shall perform the same quarantine as the sick persons themselves.

After the quarantine guardians shall have been placed on board any ship or vessel, (not furnished with a clean bill of health,) the pilot and passengers may quit such ship or vessel, and be removed, under the care of a health guard, to apartments in the lazaret, provided they come from a ship or vessel having no suspicious sickness on board; but if otherwise, such pilot and passengers shall be sent to the pest-house, or other detached place, which may be provided for the reception of persons afflicted with any infectious disease, at the direction of the superintendent of quarantine, with the advice of the medical attendant, and there continue in quarantine for the period fixed by government; and at the expiration of which time, if such pilot and passengers continue free from infection, they shall be discharged; provided, that during the performance of such quarantine, the pilot and passengers shall not have had communication with any other person, except under similar restrictions to those herein directed, with regard to other persons under quarantine.

And in case any pestilential disorder shall occur among the ship's crew or passengers, before the expiration of the said period of quarantine, at whatever stage of the quarantine such accident may happen, the quarantine of the officers, passengers, crew, and pilot, as well as of the goods, wares, and merchandise, shall recommence; and the sick persons shall be sent to the pest-house, or place appropriated for the reception of persons afflicted with any infectious disease; the guards shall be immediately doubled, and such orders given by the superintendent of quarantine, as may appear necessary.

All baggage, wearing-apparel, books, and every other article, belonging to any person on board any ship or vessel, arriving as before mentioned, and not furnished with a clean bill of health, for which they shall have no immediate occasion, shall be sent to the lazaret, for the purpose of being aired; in like manner as other goods of the same description.

And that the expurgation of goods, wares, and merchandise, enumerated in class the first, as before mentioned, after they have been removed to the lazaret, shall proceed in the following manner, that is to say—

The following articles, viz. cotton, rags, raw wool, goats' wool, Carmenia wool, and hair, shall be taken out of the bags, and shall be ranged in low heaps, not above four feet high, and successively handled and rummaged.

All goods packed in or with straw, cotton, or any other article enumerated in the said first class, or considered as susceptible, shall be entirely taken out of, or separated from the same, and carefully aired.

All goods enumerated in the said first class, concerning the expurgation of which no particular directions have been given, shall be unpacked, opened, aired, and handled, in like manner, so far as may be, as is hereinbefore directed, with regard to goods of a similar description.

After the delivery of all the goods, wares, and merchandise, enumerated in the first and second classes before mentioned, into the lazaret, the ship or vessel, with the rest of the cargo, shall then commence on her quarantine, during which the packages, wares, and merchandise, (not enumerated in either of the classes mentioned,) remaining on board, shall be frequently swept and shifted, from time to time, as much as possible, according to the nature thereof, so as to admit of free ventilation; and at the expiration of the period fixed by government, if all persons on board, and also all those on shore, employed in the expurgation of that part of the ship's cargo in the lazaret, continue free from every appearance of infection, the ship or vessel, and such part of the crew, passengers, and cargo, as remained on board, shall be finally fumigated and discharged.

The following non-enumerated goods, viz. dried fruit, oil, money, and grain, pulse and other seed, in bulk or in sacks, provided that all the persons on board remain in health, and the articles separated

from all matters of susceptible quality, shall be delivered with as much despatch as possible.

The quarantine of all goods, wares, and merchandise, (as well such as are directed to be left in, as such as are to be removed from, the ship or vessel,) in cases where the cargo shall consist partly of articles enumerated in the said first and second classes, and partly of non-enumerated articles, shall commence and be computed from the day on which the whole of the articles enumerated in the said two classes, shall have been removed from the ship or vessel importing the same, to be opened and aired in the manner before directed.

And the captain of the port is directed, upon any unforeseen emergency, or in any case with respect to any particular ship or vessel, having any infectious disease on board, or arriving under any other alarming or suspicious circumstances, as to infection, to put such ship or vessel in quarantine, in the place appointed for such vessels, and immediately report the same to the superintendent of quarantine, that the necessary measures may be adopted.

The masters of the guard-boats, and the chief guard on shore, will report every morning, at day light, to the captain of the port, the number and description of the different ships and vessels which have entered the harbour in the course of the night, which ships and vessels must be immediately visited by the captain of the port.

All ships or vessels in quarantine must constantly keep a yellow flag flying at the fore-top-gallant-mast head, or other conspicuous part of the rigging; and if the ship is not provided with a clean bill of health, the yellow flag must have a black ball (not less than six inches in diameter) painted in the centre.

The captain of the port must constantly carry in his boat a proportion of yellow flags, for the purpose of supplying ships or vessels not furnished with the same. He must also have in his boat, a bucket with vinegar, a pair of iron tongs, and a fumigating box, for the reception of bills of health, Mediterranean passes, &c. These he will deliver to the officer of the health department, not to be returned until the expiration of the quarantine; and it is to be understood, that the said ship's papers are not to be received by the captain of the port, except where such ship or vessel is provided with a clean bill of health.

And all masters of ships or vessels, whether provided with foul or clean bills of health, shall, when required, deliver up to the officers

of the health department the manifest and other ship's papers, (the necessary precaution, of dipping them in vinegar and fumigating, having been first observed,) and shall, before the captain of the port, make a solemn declaration, upon oath, to the contents of the same, to the best of their recollection and belief; which declaration shall be taken down in writing, and registered in the health office.

The captain of the lazaret will, in person, superintend the discharge of cargoes in the lazaret, and he will be particularly careful that the cargoes, subject to the different terms of quarantine, be deposited in different stores, and that no communication be held by the persons employed in landing such cargoes, or by the person having charge of them, after they are landed: and when a cargo has undergone quarantine, and is to be re-embarked, he will order the boats and lighters to receive it at one of the wharfs separate from those where goods are unloading.

And when a cargo from a ship or vessel with a foul bill of health is to be landed, he will assign a separate and distant part of the wharfs for the landing of such cargo, as well as a separate store for its reception, with an additional guard to prevent communication.

The captain of the lazaret must keep a register of all goods landed, and, if required by the master of the ship, will give a receipt for any parcel received, specifying its mark and number, and the number of the store in which it is deposited; he is responsible for all goods landed, and is directed to send to the consignees a notification three days previous to the termination of quarantine of any parcel of goods.

Persons wishing to examine goods at the lazaret must carry with them a permission from the consignees of such goods, which permission must be countersigned by the superintendent of quarantine, or the captain of the lazaret; and, during the examination of such goods, must be attended by an additional health-guard.

The captain of the lazaret is directed to prevent all persons in pratique entering into any of the apartments occupied by persons in quarantine in the lazaret; when such visits are necessary, they must be made at the *Parlatorio*, by a written permission from the superintendent of quarantine, and in the presence of a health-guard.

The captain of the lazaret will frequently, in the course of the day, visit the different apartments and stores in the lazaret; and once in the day he will visit every ship and vessel with foul bills of

health, muster their crews, and ascertain from the health-guardian, whether the regulations have been properly complied with; and if any impediment shall occur in the execution of the duties required by the said guardians, the captain of the lazaret shall take care to use effectual measures for the removal of the same, and immediately report it to the superintendent of quarantine; he will also see all boats belonging to the lazaret (excepting the guard-boat) chained to the shore every evening at sunset; their sails and oars taken from them, and locked up in an apartment within the walls of the lazaret.

The captain of the lazaret will keep a register of all persons performing quarantine in the lazaret; he will take into his custody their arms of every description; he will take care that regularity and good order are preserved among the passengers, guardians, and porters; and if it should be found necessary to confine any person for impropriety of conduct, all those in the same quarantine are required to assist him in the execution of his duty.

Passengers performing quarantine in the lazaret must strictly conform to all regulations pointed out to them by the captain of the lazaret; they are not permitted to have dogs, cats, or other domestic animals going loose; they must not communicate with persons in different periods of quarantine; they must frequently expose their bedding and wearing-apparel to the open air; their mattresses must be slit open, and the contents pulled out and aired.

All officers of health, and other persons, must carefully avoid touching either goods or passengers in quarantine; if, by accident, they are contaminated by touch, they must perform the same quarantine as that from whence the suspicion was derived; and if they are touched by malicious design, the person offending is liable to such punishment as may be decreed by law.

All communication by letter with persons in quarantine in the lazaret, and on board ship, is prohibited, excepting through the medium of the health officers. All letters from persons in quarantine must be received by the health officers, and forwarded to the post-office, the precaution of fumigating them being always observed; care being also taken when several letters or papers are enclosed together, that the covers be slit open, and when parcels or letters are very bulky, or when they are suspected to contain patterns of cloth, &c. &c., they must be opened for the purpose of being fumigated, and sealed again with the health-officer's seal.

All persons appointed health guardians shall make oath before the captain of the port, that they will faithfully and diligently perform their different duties, and strictly obey all orders delivered to them by the officers of the quarantine department, and that they will expose themselves in taking charge of passengers, ships, and merchandize, arriving with foul bills of health. All boatmen and porters employed shall also make oath before the captain of the port, that they will punctually obey, and conform to all orders delivered to them by the officers of the quarantine department. The oath to be signed by them, and lodged in the quarantine office.

If any officer or person whatsoever, whose duty it is to execute any order concerning quarantine, shall, knowingly and willingly, embezzle any goods or articles performing quarantine; or if any officer or person shall, knowingly and willingly, permit any person, goods, or merchandize to depart from, or be conveyed out of the lazaret, or out of any ship performing quarantine, before the expiration of the regular term of quarantine, or without being duly authorized so to do; or if any person, authorized to give a certificate of a ship or merchandize having performed quarantine, shall, knowingly or willingly, give a false certificate thereof, every such officer or person so offending shall be considered guilty of the highest breach of quarantine, and shall suffer death according to law.

All officers in the health department are required to use their utmost diligence and care, that all regulations herein-mentioned for the performance of quarantine be duly observed.

Instructions given to Commanders of Vessels under Quarantine.— The commanders of vessels unloading at the lazaretto are to be careful to land every species of goods, clothing, and merchandize susceptible of infection, in order that they may be purified; and any person concealing even the smallest quantity of susceptible effects on board or on shore, is liable to the punishment of death, according to law; and all accomplices and receivers of such goods, more particularly the health guardian, are rendered liable to the same punishment.

The commanders, and all persons on board vessels performing quarantine, are to pay strict obedience to the orders they receive from the health officers; and any person going out of the prescribed limits, or going on board any vessel, without permission from the health officer, or committing any act that may endanger the public

safety, shall, on conviction, suffer death according to law. All irregularities and disorders committed on board any vessel under quarantine, or disobedience of any part of these instructions, will be punished by the quarantine laws of the island.

Commanders of vessels are to answer faithfully to such questions as shall be put to them by the physician of the health-office, relative to the health of any person on board; and all commanders of vessels are to make a report to the health-office, on the appearance of any sickness or disease on board, during the time they are performing quarantine.

Should the commander or any person on board vessels performing quarantine be desirous of medical aid, he is first to apply to the physician of the health-office, who will report his case; and permission must be obtained from the health office before any other than the physician of that office be permitted to go alongside that ship.

APPENDIX C.

SAILING DIRECTIONS

FOR THE

STRAIT OF GIBRALTAR.*

Generally, all fast-sailing vessels, of from 30 to 60 tons, may pass the Strait with a light wind from the W. and N.W. by working the vessel in the following manner.

After weathering Europa Point, Gibraltar Bay is entered; hence you approach the *Ensenada de Getares,* or Sandy Bay, on the W.; and, when you observe that the ebb tide is making, you may approach *Punta del Carnero,* keeping yourself at a moderate distance between the two lines AB of the chart. The ebb at Carnero Point runs towards the *Punta del Frayle;* and, on entering into the evolution of the tide at the *Punta del Açebuche,* you may find the regular flux and reflux by keeping within the line A; because the current

* These directions have been forwarded me from Gibraltar, and have been drawn up by Mr. Ignatius Reiner, who has constructed an excellent chart of the Bay, and who, as pilot of H. M. S. *Pacifico* between Gibraltar and Barbary, obtained an accurate knowledge of the tides and currents of the Straits.

between the two lines AA continually runs towards the East; by keeping this direction, as the eddies of the Punta de Açebuche move towards the West, you will be carried by the force of the flood-tide into the Cove of the Castle of Tolmo.

All this must be effected in the morning, when the wind is always off the land; and, for this reason, it is advisable for vessels to anchor during the previous night in the *Cove of Getares* (Sandy Bay) until daylight; for it is not safe to work at night, on account of the coast being all skirted with rocks.

It must be remarked, that the *Punta del Açebuche* is the most difficult point in the Strait to weather when the wind is from the West; for it is surrounded by several eddies, and is dangerous, particularly to vessels of great burthen, which require much attention in tacking; and none should approach too near, as all the coast from the *Punta del Frayle* to that of Açebuche is skirted with rocks, and particular notice must be taken of the rock *Las dos Hermanas*, which is at the greater distance from the shore, it not being safe to stand near it; for vessels, when tacking seems most necessary, are prevented from tacking by the eddies and the variation of the winds, and run the risk of being driven on shore and lost.

After passing the Castle of the *Tolmo*, while the tide continues favourable, short tacks are to be made; taking care not to go beyond the line A, which is clearly defined to the eye by the current. When the wind is light, care must be taken not to stand too near the shore; because, from the Point of *Torre de Gualmesi*, and thence to the Point of *Camorro*, the ground is very foul.

The Point of *Camorro* is also very dangerous, having many rocks, one of which extends out to a cable's length from the shore.

When near Tarifa, with little wind, and the current beginning to be contrary, vessels must anchor in 9 or 10 fathoms, at about half a mile from the island, the lantern bearing West; for, by keeping under way, they would be swept away to the Eastward by the ebb tide, thereby losing all the labour and fatigue spent during the flood; so soon as the tide turns, they ought to get under sail, as the anchorage near Tarifa is not very secure.

When to the Westward of Tarifa Light-House, care must be taken to avoid the dangerous shoals called *Los Cabezos Arroyo del Puerco*, which lie five miles W. by N. $\frac{1}{2}$ N. (*true*) from the Island; and

another shoal, which was discovered by his Majesty's frigate *Thisbe*, that lies about five miles and a quarter W. ½ S. (*true*) from the Island. In order to avoid these dangers, it is necessary to stand over to the Barbary coast, keeping a good full, in order to get, as soon as possible, out of the strength of the current, flowing towards the East, between the lines AA of the chart. After passing these two lines, short tacks must be made within the waters of the Cove *Cala Grande*, keeping on the line C with care, on account of the several rocks, and a separate shoal exhibited on the chart.

After weathering the Cove Cala Vaquero or Baca, which is to the Eastward of *Cape Malabata*, it is necessary to tack, comparatively at a farther distance, owing to the great vortexes of the sea running rapidly towards the N.W. By working in this manner, until after weathering Cape Malabata, commanders may thence work their vessels at pleasure.

In case the flood should not be strong enough for weathering Cape Malabata, and that the vessel should be driven towards the Mediterranean by a contrary current, it will be necessary to keep under cover of the Cape, that is, in the Cove *Cala Grande*; because, during a *contrary current*, the eddies under the three Points of Malabata run to the West, and therefore regulate the tacks at a proper distance from the coast. This coast is very dangerous, and it is not advisable to anchor near it, on account of the Barbarians, who conceal themselves behind the bushes near the shore, and thence fire their long muskets, which sometimes cause very serious consequences.

Having arrived to the West of Cape Malabata, when the current begins to abate, vessels may anchor in the Bay of Tangier.

TANGIER BAY is surrounded by small rocks and shoals, and the bottom is full of stones and rocks; it is, therefore, necessary to obtain anchorage by attending to the following marks; viz. Cape Malabata N. E. by E. ½ E.; Old Tangier S. E. by S.; Ponte Rotto, or Broken Bridge, S. S. W.; the North end of the Castle of Tangier W. N. W. ½ W.; and mooring in 7, 8, or 10 fathoms, in a gravelly bottom.

The good anchoring place is also known, when coming from the North, by the sight of two small hills and the Ponte Rotto or Broken Bridge.

With East and South winds, the sea comes in very high in the

Bay, causing the vessels at anchor to roll very much; and also with fresh wind from the S. W. there is a very high sea and swelling, coming round from *Cape Spartel.*

Large Vessels, &c.—It is useless to attempt to pass the Strait of Gibraltar with wind from the West, with vessels of large size, because the currents between the two lines AA continually run to the East, with great rapidity, during the new and full moons; and because the variation of the winds will not allow a large square-rigged vessel to approach near enough to the shore to take advantage of the eddies.

The best way to act in this case, if a vessel finds itself between *Sierra Bullones, or Apes' Hill,* on the coast of Africa, and the *Point of Acebuche,* on the coast of Spain, is to come to anchor in the Bay of Gibraltar; otherwise she may experience some damage, and be drove again back into the Mediterranean Sea.

Great precaution must be taken in the Strait, when there is a fog, to keep in the centre as much as possible. Vessels of war, in particular, when cruising therein, must be very careful in tempestuous winds from the E. and S.E.; such winds are accompanied by very heavy and broken sea, and the current then runs rapidly towards the N.W., that is, to the coast of Spain. It is, therefore, necessary, when to the Eastward of Europa Point and the Point of *Almina* (Ceuta), on the coast of Africa, to stand well over to the Southward during the night, in order to avoid the fate of many unfortunate vessels, that have been wrecked to the East of the Rock of Gibraltar; among which was his Faithful Majesty's frigate *San Juan ò Principe,* commanded by Rodrigo Lovo, wrecked at the back of the Rock of Gibraltar, on the Spanish coast, between la *Torre Nueva* and *Carbonera,* at three, A.M. on the 5th of April, 1807.

The most secure way of working a vessel of war, when there is an appearance of the weather becoming tempestuous from S.E., is to get out of the Strait, and take shelter under Cape Spartel; and, if the wind should be tempestuous from the S.W., it is necessary to take shelter behind the *Punta de la Almina* (Ceuta), lying-to between this and Cape Negro, where the wind and sea will be moderate.

With the winds from N.W., W., and S.W., vessels may anchor very well in the *Bay of Tetuan,* observing that the bottom is very foul; but steering to the South from Cape Negro, clean bottom will be found so soon as the City of Tetuan is in view, which is all white,

and situated from the coast about five or six miles. Clear bottom may also be found by a square tower near the beach and the mouth of the river *Cus*, bringing the Castle West, at about the distance of two miles, in the depth of 14, 16, or 17 fathoms, where there is a good sandy anchoring ground.

Care must be taken with East wind, particularly in winter, which sometimes suddenly comes on with a high sea; therefore vessels must, without loss of time, get under way; for, if they remain at anchor, they run the risk of being stranded, because the high sea and revolution of the currents frequently do not allow vessels to weather the point of Almina.

It is useless for commanders of large or small vessels to continue in the Strait with boisterous wind from S.W., on account of the eddies swelling the sea very much, which is very dangerous, as demonstrated in the chart; commanders, therefore, must be careful, particularly in winter. The best way in which they can act, is to run for the *Bay of Gibraltar*, and anchor in from 14 to 5 fathoms, in clear sandy ground, so soon as the *Devil's Tower* is seen.

Vessels coming from the West may easily beat through the Strait, that is with East wind, into the Mediterranean, by keeping and tacking between the two lines AA, but always nearer to the coast of Barbary than to the opposite shore, because the current runs rapidly towards the East, and the wind near this coast is always more moderate; even when in the vicinity of Tarifa, the East wind is strong enough to put a ship past her close-reefed top-sails.

Lastly, when the wind is very strong from the East, it is better to take shelter under *Cape Spartel*, and lie-to until the wind becomes moderate.

N. B. In the middle of the Strait, the current generally runs towards the East, without being influenced by the moon.

APPENDIX D.

THE IONIAN GOVERNMENT

STEAM VESSEL, EPTANISOS,*

Is intended to continue her Voyages twice to the Islands, and once to ANCONA, every month, until further notice.

Sails from—			*Arrives at*—		
CORFU	on the	8th.	ZANTE	on the	9th.
ZANTE	.	12th.	CORFU	.	13th.
CORFU	.	16th.	ANCONA	.	18th.
ANCONA	.	21st.	CORFU	.	23rd.
CORFU	.	26th.	ZANTE	.	27th.
ZANTE	.	29th.	CORFU	.	30th.

Price for Passengers and Parcels.

		Passengers.		Carriages embarked or towed in a Barge.		Horses.	Dogs.	Parcels or Packages exceeding the regulated Allowance.		Specie per Cent.
		Cabin.	Steerage, or Servants.	Four-Wheel.	Two-Wheel.			1 cubic foot or 30 lbs. weight.	Above 1 and not exceeding 30 cubic feet or 500 lbs. weight (the latter in proportion) per foot.	
		£. s.	£. s.	£.	£. s.	£.	s.	s. d.	s. d.	£. s.
Corfu to	Ancona and *vice versa* .	6 0	3 0	5	3 10	5	10	5 0	3 0	1 0
	Paxo and ditto . .	0 10	0 6							
	Santa Maura and ditto .	1 0	0 12	3	2 0	3	5	2 6	1 6	0 10
	Cephalonia and ditto .	1 10	0 18							
	Zante and ditto . .	2 0	1 4							

Cabin passengers are to pay ten shillings from one island to the next adjoining, and steerage passengers and servants six shillings. Children, under eight years of age, are to pay one-half.

To Ancona and *vice versa*.
- Cabin passengers are allowed *gratis* 150 lbs. of baggage if not exceeding 9 cubic feet.
- Steerage passengers and servants ditto 100 lbs. if not exceeding 6 cubic feet.

To the Islands and *vice versa*.
- Cabin passengers are allowed *gratis* 100 lbs. of baggage if not exceeding 6 cubic feet.
- Steerage passengers and servants ditto 70 lbs. if not exceeding 4 cubic feet.

* I have received this notice from the Colonial Office, and give it, in order that Mediterranean travellers may be aware of the existence of the packet.

No package will be received on board measuring more than 30 cubic feet or 500 lbs. weight.

Passengers are recommended to pack their luggage in as small a compass as possible, and to have their names and ports of destination distinctly marked and firmly attached to each package. Damage or loss of property is at the risk of the owners of the same.

Carriages, horses and dogs, will be received only when convenient.

All specie must be entered as such, and the same must be shipped and landed by the consigners and consignees respectively, and cleared from the vessel immediately on her arrival at the port of destination.

Passengers and parcels must be entered and paid for at the Steam Vessel Office, previous to embarkation, and the Agent's receipt will be a ticket for admission, without which nothing will be received on board.

Passengers are requested to conform to the hours fixed for the vessel's departure, as the greatest possible regularity will be observed.

N.B. The English monthly packet touches at Zante and Patrass in coming to and returning from Corfu; besides which, the Ionian Government will send a sailing vessel to Patrass and Cerigo, during each month, for the conveyance of passengers and letters.

Mails will be made up by the steamer for Ancona and *vice versa*, and arrangements are made for the conveyance of letters to and from any part of Great Britain and the Continent, addressed to the care of the Post Office, Ancona.

The mails from Great Britain and all parts of the Continent arrive at and depart from Ancona three times a week.

APPENDIX E.

(I received the following after the text had gone to Press.)

THE SEE.—The bishopric of Man, according to the authentic accounts, is the most ancient in the United Kingdom; being 60 years prior to Bangor in Wales, or Down and Armagh in Ireland.

The natives were converted to Christianity about A. D. 444, by St. Patrick, who appointed St. Germanus the first bishop, from whom the parish of Germain and the ancient cathedral of Peel took their names; as did the adjoining parish from St. Patrick. The bishop-

ric, therefore, is of nearly 1400 years standing, and has been celebrated for many prelates of learning and piety. Bishop Wilson gave Christian celebrity to the island during the 56 years of his Episcopate, and his numerous writings have been very extensively circulated. His immediate successor, Bishop Hildesley, has also left several marks of his piety and beneficence. Bishop Barrow, who was prior to them both, was the greatest benefactor to its learning, and to the comforts of the clergy, that the island has ever known.

THE CLERGY.—The church of Mann having been stripped of most of its revenue at the reformation, the greater number of its clergy have been always kept in a depressed state, notwithstanding the exertions of many pious persons to augment the livings. The lords of the isle seized the third of the tithes of all the vicarages, to which, together with other lay-impropriations of abbey-lands and prescriptions, this poverty may be attributed.

When Bishop Barrow came to the See, shortly after the restoration in 1666, he found the church in a state of great impoverishment; the clergy very defective in education, and destitute of the means of learning. He made this known to his brethren of the Bench, and other friends in England; and by his great zeal and persevering exertions, raised a sum of money sufficient to purchase all the impropriate tithes of Lord Derby, then lord of the isle. The clergy thus regained and retained possession of them, enjoying a decent competency, for nearly 50 years; at which time the island passed from the Derby to the Atholl family. The first Duke of Atholl disputed Lord Derby's right to alienate these tithes; commenced a law-suit against the clergy, the expense of which they were unable to meet, and so were dispossessed of them, and thrown back into their original poverty. In this reduced state they continued during several years; until Bishop Wilson came to the See, who, finding that Bishop Barrow had used the precaution to get a collateral security on an estate of Lord Derby's in England, instituted proceedings against the representative of that family in the English Court of Chancery, gained the cause, and obtained an annuity for the clergy in lieu of the tithes. This annuity has since been compromised by Lord Derby for a sum of money, with which lands were improvidently purchased in the island at war prices, the rental of which does not now exceed £340 per annum, not the fourth part of

the original purchase. The extended value of 13 out of the 17 livings in the diocese is £90 per annum each.

The episcopal residence is pleasantly situated in the most agreeable and healthy part of the island, surrounded by a demesne of about 600 acres, with picturesque glens and considerable plantations. Many of the trees were planted by Bishop Wilson above 100 years ago.

CHURCHES. — In the year 1828, when the present bishop, Dr. Ward, came to the diocese, the parish churches were many of them rapidly falling into decay, besides being of dimensions very inadequate to the increased population; in appearance mean and unsightly; and in some cases inconveniently situated for the mass of the people. Numerous inhabitants, especially of the mountain districts, were thus debarred the blessing of Divine worship, as well by their distance from the parish church, as by the want of sufficient accommodation within its walls.

The towns of the island were also inadequately supplied with church accommodation. Douglas, the principal town, with a population of seven or eight thousand, had church room for only 1,200, and the poor were entirely excluded. To remedy these evils has been the anxious desire, and under God, in a great degree, the successful labour of Bishop Ward. The parishioners, though by law compelled to repair, and, where necessary, to rebuild their churches, seemed little able to bear the whole burthen of the enormous outlay required: and the island not being included in the charters of those societies established in England for the enlarging and rebuilding of churches, could look for no help in that quarter. The bishop, therefore, determined at once on making an appeal to the benevolence of the British public: and through his unceasing exertions, seconded in person by the Rev. H. Stowell of Ballaugh, about £7,000 was raised in aid of the object. By means of this fund, with a very moderate assessment of the respective parishes, five of the most dilapidated country churches (Onchan, Lonan, Lezayn, Ballaugh and Michael) have been rebuilt in a much more handsome and commodious style, contributing greatly to the beauty of the country, as well as to the benefit of the inhabitants. A new church has also been built in Douglas containing about 1,400 sittings, of which 700 are free, and at present thronged by the poor whenever its doors are open for worship. A chapel has been annexed to King William's

college, for the benefit of that institution, as well as of the neighbourhood, where additional accommodation was greatly needed: and several smaller chapels in various parts have been repaired or enlarged.

There are still parish churches falling into decay, which, ere long, must be rebuilt on a larger scale. Douglas, too, from a vast increase of visitors and residents from the neighbouring shores, is still insufficiently supplied with church accommodation: moreover, the new country churches, although in some instances the site has been changed, are still far distant from the boundary of the parishes, which are very extensive and widely populated. Many wild and beautiful glens, where there are hamlets with respectable inhabitants, comfortable dwellings, and well-cultivated lands, surrounded with mountains, which make the distance from church (great in itself) almost unattainable in winter, are left nearly destitute of Christian instruction. By means of the fund raised in England, Bishop Ward is about to adopt a plan for supplying the poor with religious instruction, and the means of religious worship, in these districts. He proposes to build a small chapel, forming a transept to a schoolhouse, and opening into it by sliding partitions. This answers the double purpose of a church and school, and ensures the attendance of the Sunday scholars at Divine worship. In one of the most picturesque of these mountain districts, on a spot where three glens meet, each of which has its village and its scattered cottages up to the foot of the highest mountains of the northern ridge; a chapel and school-room thus united are now erecting and nearly completed. The Bishop has placed this beautiful little building on the site of an ancient chapel belonging to the Tynwald Mount, which was used by the Lords of the Isle previous to the foundation of the present mount at St. John's. The consecrated site has been preserved with the greatest reverence untouched for some centuries, and the foundations of the old chapel remained, on which the new one is erected. Several other districts, of equal interest and importance, call for similar assistance. The Archdeacon is building a chapel in his own parish, and has applied to the legislature to pass a bill annexing to it a portion of the tithes.

KING WILLIAM'S COLLEGE. — Bishop Barrow had bestowed an estate on the church by deed, in the vicinity of Castletown, for the purpose of educating young men for the ministry of the church in

the island, reserving at the same time a power to make any alteration in the disposal of it during his lifetime. The only alteration that he made in his will, was in the choice of different trustees, and a more defined application of the surplus-money for the benefit of the church. From a suspension of the academy in which the clergy had been educated from the days of Bishop Barrow, a saving had arisen in the rents of this estate to the amount of £1000. This, with subscriptions raised through the Island and in England, has enabled the trustees to erect a spacious and handsome college, which is now in vigorous operation, having near 200 boys, 80 of whom are lodged within its walls. There is every reason to expect that it will become one of the most flourishing seminaries of learning in the United Kingdom. Its eligible situation being within a few hours' sail of the surrounding coasts of Great Britain and Ireland, the salubrity of the climate, its exemption from many temptations to which public schools are commonly exposed, the rules and restrictions adopted in the selection of masters, and the motives for exertion held out to those masters by the regulations of the institution — all *combine to* give the promise of permanent and *increasing usefulness* and celebrity to the Manx College. The *King has* honoured it with his name, and will no doubt grant it a charter. The building was begun in 1830, and was opened in 1833. *The* principal, the Rev. Edward Wilson, late Fellow of St. *John's* College, Cambridge, is one of the most eminent scholars and divines of the present day.

SCHOOLS.—There is a free school in Castletown, and another in Peeltown, and a parochial school in each parish, all established, except that in Peel, by Bishop Barrow. By means of a grant which he obtained from Charles II., augmented by contributions raised by him in England, he was enabled to bestow small endowments on each of them. These might have been a competent provision for the masters 160 years ago, but they are very insufficient now, and, of consequence, the schools are in general in a languid and depressed state.

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LONDON:

PRINTED BY W. NICOL, 51, PALL-MALL.

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'The third volume of Mr. Martin's Colonial History, embracing the whole of our possessions in North America, is distinguished by the same breadth and rapidity of style,—the same diligence and discursiveness in research,—and the same manner of throwing out numerous facts in huge masses, which especially marked the preceding volumes. We do not know of any writer who is so laborious in the accumulation of details,—who is so familiar

with multitudinous sources of information,—and who sweeps into his service such a vast variety of data: his stores appear to tumble into the ocean of his book with the velocity of some cataract, roaring downwards to the sea.'—*Atlas, December* 21, 1834.

'This is a work of great research, well and ably written, clear and lucid in its arrangement, and correct in the statements which it embodies. To a great extent, too, it may be considered a desideratum, filling up as it does a blank in the literature of the country.'—*Globe, March*, 1834.

'An elaborate work, full of tables of every description calculated to illustrate the wealth, produce, military resources, and trade of these extensive and important possessions, and systematically and lucidly arranged so as to give at once a complete view of our colonies.'—*Courier*.

'That the first volume of so large and expensive a work should already have reached a second edition, is conclusive proof that the commendation which we, in common with most of our cotemporaries, bestowed upon it, was nothing more than it deserved. On the question of religion and morals, Mr. Martin always writes with a commendable zeal and energy. We may say the same of the manner in which he expresses himself on all great questions of justice and humanity; and Mr. M. will see from our observations that we have looked with some attention to his able and excellent work.'—*Morning Advertiser, October*, 1835.

'It is gratifying to observe that this national work has been duly appreciated by the public. A history of our immense Colonial possessions, of the great interests connected with them, of their bearing and influence upon the mother country, with a clear view of the policy which had been operating upon them, was a desideratum in our language. With an external empire ramifying itself into every part of the globe, there was a complete blank in our literature of works relating to its people, its laws, its customs, its physical aspects, its industrial and economical character, its productions, and its governments, previous to Mr. Martin devoting his energies to the task of giving to the public his comprehensive and most valuable work, a noble monument of perseverance and industry, and of a sagacious and powerful mind. The volume has our very hearty commendation. The statistical information it embraces is wide, and has been collected with great pains, and is remarkable for its accuracy; and the *remarks* upon men and manners are distinguished by a philanthropic spirit highly honourable to Mr. Martin. No library, whether public or private, can be considered complete without this work, both as a book of reference and for agreeable and instructive reading.'—*Constitutional Magazine.*

'The quantity of information on every conceivable topic of importance connected with the Colonies contained in these volumes is immense, and could only be acquired after many months—years we will add—of most diligent research. Mr. Martin's plan of proceeding is in a great measure original, and we trust he will, with his usual unweariedness, prosecute his arduous undertaking until the *desideratum* be supplied, when the public we are sure will join with us in congratulating him on the completion of so Herculean a task.'—*Monthly Magazine, Sept.* 1834.

'The present undertaking, strange as it may seem, has the merit claimed for it by the author of being the first attempt that has been made to present to the public an account of the Colonies. In no work is to be found so large a mass of information respecting the Colonial Empire of Britain as is collected here; and although embodying a vast number of minute particulars, the work may, through the greater part, be read straight on without weariness.'—*Printing Machine, Oct.* 4, 1834.

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'Martin's admirable work will go far in opening the eyes of all who are not positively enamoured of darkness. This delightful Vol. (II.) while it offers luxurious reading to the indolent, is pregnant with deep interest to those who are capable of grappling with its knowledge.'—*Sun, 6th August*, 1834.

'Mr. Martin's history is a valuable acquisition to the library of the general reader as well as to the Colonial Legislator, and will always rank high among our standard works for its perspicuity and correctness.'—*Salisbury Herald.*

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'It has often been a source of wonder to us that no one could be found of sufficient talent and research to furnish an historical, statistical, and geographical description of the most interesting portions of our empire. It has been left to Mr. Martin to accomplish this *magnum opus*, and he has executed it with such knowledge, industry, and judicious arrangement, as deserves our highest praise and warmest thanks. The style is easy, and at times eloquent, and the whole work has the great and rare merit of being free from any party feeling or prejudice. We recommend Mr. Martin to that patronage to which his talent and industry so eminently entitle him.'—*Bell's Weekly Messenger.*

'The contents of this interesting and valuable work are extremely and most agreeably

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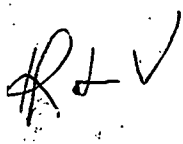

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